The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 20, 1893.

The Week.

SENATOR SHERMAN'S letter on the subject of the Silver Purchase Law which goes by his name, must be taken, like most of his public communications, with a grain of salt. Mr. Sherman can always be depended on to say and to do the right thing, so far as, in his judgment, political exigencies will warrant him in doing so. Mr. Sherman says in this letter that it was necessary to pass the Act of 1890 in order to defeat a free-coinage bill. In reply to the counter argument that President Harrison could have easily vetoed such a bill and would have done so, he says, "We had no right to throw the responsibility upon him." Why not? The responsibility of the President in the passing of laws is of exactly the same kind as the responsibility of Congress. If Mr. Sherman means by this high-sounding phrase that he and his friends had no right to expose Mr. Harrison to the apprehended loss of votes in the silver-producing States, that is a matter of personal or party advantage, not of constitutional or political morality, as at first blush it seems to be. There is no word so well adapted to produce confusion in public debate as the word "right." When a man says, as Mr. Sherman does, that he had "no right" to do so and so, he may mean that he had no constitutional right, or that he had no legal right, or that he had no moral right. In any case he is bound to tell what he means, because it is certain that different people will understand him in different ways. Instead of telling what kind of a right would have been infringed if Congress had put upon President Harrison a responsibility that the Constitution devolves upon him, he says in the next paragraph: "I never for a moment have regretted the passage of the Act of 1890 commonly called the Sherman Act." Even here the Senator cannot tell what caused him to prefer the Sherman Bill to the preëxisting "Bland Act"—meaning the Allison Act. The real reason was that it contained the declaratory clause about keeping the two metals at a parity. This was a good reason. It was worth all that it cost, but Mr. Sherman cannot claim the merit that he is really entitled to because he maintained that it was the law already. So instead of making a good and substantial claim, he stuffs the public with a lot of unmeaning words about the advantage of using both gold and silver as "reserves." Reserves of what? The letter is Shermanesque in a high degree. As we have said aforetime, Senator Sherman has promoted more financial heresies by his words and killed more by his acts than any other man in our history.

It may safely be said that a very critical week, as well as one of great significance, closed on Saturday in the financial markets. Especially in London it had been expected that the regular fortnightly settlement of Stock Exchange accounts would develop serious trouble. Within the fortnight had occurred the violent break in prices consequent on the India Council's move, and the feeling in London had been very gloomy. Last week was bound to bring the situation to a test. Although the local monetary situation in New York had grown a trifle easier, it was feared that a further fall in market prices would precipitate trouble here. These double expectations were reflected last week in a bold and extensive movement, on both security markets, by speculative operators for the decline. The movement was conducted with the use of every expedient known to professional wreckers of values, including the reckless circulation of false rumors and sales of enormous quantities of "short" stock; but it failed almost completely. Neither in London nor in New York did the anticipated disasters come to light. In London there were perhaps a dozen broker failures, only one of which, however, was of any consequence, while nearly all were those of small business men, not members of the Stock Exchange, and described on the London market somewhat contemptuously as "jobbers." The end of the week's experiences has, therefore, been a distinct improvement in confidence; and confidence, at the moment, is the one thing needful. The incidents of the past week showed with unusual force how closely, in these days, the world's financial markets are bound together. In Capel Court and in Wall Street the week's experiences have been identical, both as to time and to character. A difference has existed in the fact that while New York has gathered encouragement from the increasing signs of a movement of foreign gold in this direction, London has regarded with some apprehension the drain on its reserves. It is, however, hardly possible that a steady improvement in the American markets should not far more than offset in London the incident of a heavy specie export. In point of fact, the Bank of England's gold balance has for a fortnight been larger in amount than at any period in the last fifteen years.

Bank clearances for the first six months of the present year are published by *Bradstreet's* and the *Financial Chronicle*. The total is thirty-one thousand millions of dollars. If we double this amount for the year and add something to it for the banks whose transactions are not reported, we have clearings of $1,000 per capita per annum. This measure of business is no doubt too small for the whole country, since it takes no account of transactions outside the banks; but taking the estimate as it stands, we have this large amount of business done through banks whose book accounts cover but $72 per capita, while their actual cash holdings are but $10 per head. In other words, transactions in which payments are made by checks or other instruments of credit, amount to fifteen times more than the reported deposits of all banks, savings and trust institutions, and one hundred times more than the actual cash kept on hand. It is easy to see from these figures why distrust paralyzes trading, and why suspicion of the real value of our currency has so great an effect, since the $1,000 of bank clearings per capita is based upon the traders' confidence in the small cash balance back of it all. Clearly enough, too, it is not a large volume of currency that we need, since we should have to obtain and put in circulation an amount of money enormous and impossible, if each transaction were to be covered by actual cash instead of checks. Our supply is ample under good credit. We must have confidence in that currency if we would have it made the basis for expanding and prosperous trade. For every dollar of depreciated silver put out, we destroy hundreds of dollars in that exchange of credit by which modern business is alone possible.

The preliminary report of exports of breadstuffs for the fiscal year ending June 30, embracing 98 per cent. of all exports of articles named, shows the quantity of wheat sent abroad to have been the largest since 1883, with the exception of the previous year. Unfavorable comparison month by month with 1892 has led us to lose sight of the exports, which are really large, if we glance back a decade for a true comparison. The average price per bushel was the lowest. On the other hand, the quantity of wheat flour sold abroad was the largest in our history, the record showing a constantly increasing number of barrels exported year by year. In 1893 (year ending June 30), 45 per cent. of all wheat exported was in the manufactured form of flour. This large proportion shows briefly and strongly the importance of our milling industry as bearing upon our exports of wheat. There is no reason to doubt that our totals of wheat exported would be much less were it not for the energy and business sagacity displayed by the flour-millers, who have doubled their foreign trade in ten years. Being of necessity unprotected by tariff duties, the growth and success of flour-manufacturing and the steady increase in foreign sales form a most encouraging sign of what American industries in other lines will be able to accomplish when the removal of absurd

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tariff restrictions shall enable them really to compete for the trade of the world.

The country is to be congratulated upon its good fortune in securing Mr. Morton as Secretary of Agriculture. His Department is, to be sure, a fifth wheel to our car of State, but he is managing it with such vigor and upon such sound principles as to do him the greatest credit. We have had abundant promises of economy and reform, but the expenditures of the Government do not so far show much sign of decreasing. Secretary Morton, however, no sooner took office than he showed that he had a firm grasp of the fundamental principle of governmental reform, by putting his department on a sound business basis. Employees were discharged in large numbers, not in order to make places for the nominees of politicians, but because they were incompetent or useless. Their places have not been filled, because there was no need of filling them, and the saving in salaries in the Bureau of Animal Industry alone is reported to be at the rate of more than $200,000 yearly. In other directions Secretary Morton has instituted similar reforms, and it seems probable that his department will furnish a unique example of that wise and economical administration of the affairs of our people which they are familiar with only in the platforms of the political parties.

Secretary Morton's latest move is to suggest to the meat-packers that the principle that their products should be inspected and marked at the public expense is not unquestionable. At present the law provides that the Government shall inspect meats intended for export, but Secretary Morton observes that he is not required to incur any unnecessary expense in doing this. It seems that during the two years that the law has been in operation we have sold to countries demanding a certificate of inspection meat to the value of $3,547,000, while the Government has paid in salaries and expenses incurred in this work a sum equal to 8 per cent. of this amount. At the same time we have sold to countries that do not require this inspection meats to the value of more than $34,000,000, without any cost to the general public. As Secretary Morton says, if the law is supposed to create a demand for our meats abroad, it is evidently a failure. The situation is briefly this. Certain foreign Powers, notably France and Germany, desiring to propitiate the protectionist element, took advantage of some cases of trichinosis attributed to eating the flesh of the American hog, and threatened to prohibit its importation. Some of our diplomatists succeeded in effecting an arrangement by which the import was to be allowed if our Government had the flesh inspected and marked. Thus the astute foreigners practically imposed a duty of 8 per cent., under the guise of inspection, upon imports of meat from this country. The astute meat-packers transferred this duty to the American Government, and the guileless American people paid the duty, and proceeded to glorify our diplomacy and to listen complacently to effusive representations that "the foreigner pays the tax." The whole business has been a monstrous humbug from the beginning, and Mr. Morton deserves a vote of thanks for showing it up. France and Germany will certainly insist upon taxing imports from this country so long as our Government will agree to pay the tax; and in any event the meat packers of this country have a practical monopoly of a highly lucrative business in which they have acquired riches sufficient to enable them to fight their own battles.

Good Government, the organ of the National Civil-Service-Reform Association, in its issue of July 15, contains interesting statements of the practical treatment of the civil service by the present Administration. There are a good many small things which are not encouraging. Among them may be noted the "clean sweep" in the Post-office at Bloomington, Ill., where the brother of the Vice-President has been made Assistant Postmaster, and where the new carriers are so ignorant of their duties that they have had to hire their predecessors with a bonus of $35 down and $5 a day to give them the necessary instruction. The stories of other post-offices, like that at Terre Haute, are also told. The editor finds, however, that even in the vexatious field of the Post-office Department there has been under this Administration substantial progress. During the first four months of the present Administration there were 3,226 removals of fourth-class postmasters; during the corresponding period of 1889 these removals numbered 7,460. Of this advance the editor says:

> "It is more fully appreciated by one watching events on the spot than by an observer at any distance. The charges filed now in order to procure the removal of a fourth-class postmaster before he has served four years are often pitifully trivial, but at least they are charges. When Mr. Stevenson or Mr. Clarkson was wielding the axe, no charges were required."

Another article discusses the changes that have been made in regard to promotions in the different departments by Secretaries Carlisle and Smith and Postmaster-General Bissell. It says that in both the Interior and Post-office Departments, while the rules regulating promotions made by the last Administration have not been formally revoked, "they have been contemptuously ignored when the head of either department has had any promoting to do." Of the postal promotions it is stated that they appear to have been meritorious, while those of the Interior Department have been of a mixed character.

The printed arguments of the United States—each one of them signed by the author—presented to the Tribunal at Paris are striking in many ways. The seized vessels were condemned by the judicial tribunals of Alaska as forfeited to the United States, upon the contention that the United States had exclusive municipal jurisdiction in all the waters of Bering Sea east of the treaty meridian of longitude; but each and all of the printed arguments put the right of the United States to prevent pursuit and destruction on the high seas of the Pribyloff seal herd, upon the contention that the United States have a *property* in the herd which in public law and in self-defence the President can vindicate by force anywhere and everywhere in the open ocean. A distinction is drawn between exclusive municipal, legislative jurisdiction, on which the vessels were condemned, and executive right of self-defence on the high seas. In the last half of the volume is a very calm statement by Judge Blodgett of the indefensible character of the British claims for indemnity for injuries inflicted by the seizures, wherein he demonstrates that the real owners of the greater part of the seized vessels were not Canadians, but Americans. He makes it clear, on the evidence before the Tribunal, that even the notorious schooner *Sayward*, which was before the Supreme Court, was, with all her outfit and supplies, in fact, "owned by one Joseph Boscowitz, a citizen of the United States"; that Warren, the nominal owner, had no capital; that the money representing his share in the schooner was lent to him by Boscowitz and secured by a mortgage on the schooner; that in 1885 Warren became insolvent, and one Cooper, a brother-in-law of Warren, and a British subject residing in San Francisco, bid in the schooner on a sale for one dollar, and then mortgaged her to Boscowitz, all of which was done to get a British registry. Judge Blodgett shows eighteen vessels seized as Canadian, for which Great Britain claims damages, but ten of which with the supplies on board were owned by Americans.

The *Hawaiian Gazette* says it is a great mistake to suppose that "the Provisional Government is merely temporary, and must make way for some form of irresponsible native government in case annexation is not immediately consummated." The truth is, it goes on, that the Provisional Government was "established to secure some form of stable government for Hawaii, and it will be maintained until that end is reached." Then the establishers lied like troopers. In their manifesto dethroning the Queen and seizing upon the Government, they said: "Provisional government for the control and management of public affairs and the protection of public peace is hereby established, *to exist until* terms of union with the United States of America have been negotiated and agreed

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upon." As Judge Cooley has remarked, this was the most extraordinary provisional government the world ever saw, formed on its own showing expressly and solely to give the country away. That was audacious enough, but it would be still more outrageous and unheard of if the men who had seized the Government in order to turn it over to a foreign Power should now, after failing to dispose of the goods, go on to claim the plunder as their lawful property in perpetuity.

The Sunday-closing question has at last been settled by the World's Fair directors so that it will stay settled. The Fair will be closed on Sunday because it does not pay to keep it open. The visitors who are not residents of Chicago refrain from Sunday attendance partly on religious grounds, and partly because they are so tired out by their week's work that they must have a day of rest. Some are deterred undoubtedly by the fact that the Fair is not fully open on Sunday anyway. The local population who would go to the Fair on Sunday because they cannot spare the time any other day is not sufficiently numerous to warrant the expense of Sunday opening. As this has been proved by experiment, there is no more room for dispute. As the Sunday closing now rests upon rational grounds, the dispute will cease.

The London *Spectator*, commenting on the loss of the *Victoria*, raises some very serious questions as to the management of the new iron-clad vessels of the English Navy. The loss of the *Captain* was admittedly due to want of stability, but the *Captain* was an experiment, and no more vessels have been constructed upon that model. Yet within a few years there has been a series of disasters to the English Navy "sufficient to cripple the fighting strength of a third-class Power, and to deprive England during the present year of the services of a formidable fleet." The *Sultan* ran upon the rocks three years ago, and it will be a long time yet before she leaves the dry-dock at Portsmouth. She was manœuvring in a narrow channel at torpedo practice. Her captain was reprimanded. The *Howe* was got off the rocks only by blasting, and the lower part of her hull must be rebuilt; but it was decided that no one was to blame for this, as the rocks upon which she ran were not marked upon the ancient chart furnished by the Admiralty. The *Warspite*, which cost £500,000, although only a cruiser, was badly damaged by running on the rocks near Esquimault, and the *Undaunted*, a first-class cruiser, has also been upon the rocks. The *Naiad* and the *Apollo*, new cruisers, ran ashore during the last manœuvres and were much damaged. The *Victoria* was saved for her final calamity by a change of wind, which raised the waters of the Mediterranean where she was recently stranded and floated her off without injury. Her captain was reprimanded for his mismanagement. Thus during the last twelve months three ironclads, one belted cruiser, and three other cruisers have been unfitted for duty. It is scarcely credible that so many injuries to vessels should have taken place without incompetent management. The art of navigating these strange engines of modern naval warfare cannot yet be fully understood, or the executive officers of the British Navy cannot have mastered it. If they continue to lose ships as they have done in the past, it would only be necessary for a hostile squadron to keep to its harbor, and wait for the British vessels to destroy themselves by running into one another or grounding upon the rocks.

What the policy of "revenge" is costing the French people in a financial way appears from the report upon the budget of 1894 just submitted to the Chamber. No one will maintain that after 1870 France was in the slightest danger from any quarter. She had suffered all that it was possible for her to suffer, and if she had not maintained a soldier in arms, she would have been entirely free from all risk of attack. She would, indeed, have been freer than she has been with all her preparations, for these very preparations at one time nearly brought on another attack from Germany. Her armament, therefore, has had but one object—the recovery of the lost provinces. But not the slightest progress has yet been made towards this recovery, for Germany watches every French move and prepares herself accordingly. For this miserable result the appropriations for military and naval purposes, including the colonial service, now amount to nearly a thousand million francs per annum, although under Napoleon III. they scarcely exceeded one-half of that sum. In this way the total cost of the war of 1870 is mounting up until it is now computed at 11,500,000,000 francs. The total debt incurred since 1869 appears to be over 17,000,000,000 francs, and the charge for interest has risen from about 600,000,000 in that year to nearly 1,300,000,000 in this. The budget submitted for 1894 calls for the expenditure of the appalling sum of 3,438,000,000 francs, and a deficit of 150,000,000 francs is anticipated, which in view of the bad harvests we may consider an underestimate.

The revolution in the Brazilian State of Rio Grande do Sul nominally turns on a disputed election of the Governor. In November, 1891, a popular agitation began against Gov. Castilhos, which soon grew into something like a revolution, and at that time the Federal troops were called upon to preserve order. Then an agreement was entered into by both sides to settle all their differences at the ballot-box in the approaching State election, the Federal Government especially binding itself to abstain from all interference. This last promise was disgracefully broken, and the national troops were kept in the State to see that Castilhos was reëlected. That official, in fact, was declared elected by the military commander of the district in June, 1892, and was forcibly seated. Since then he has been able to keep in office only by the aid of Federal soldiers, and the dissatisfaction with this military rule has become intense, not only in the State affected, but throughout the whole country. So strong did the feeling become that two members of the Cabinet, the Minister of Marine and the Minister of Finance, threw up their portfolios on April 27 last, and published their letters of resignation, in which they severely scored President Peixoto for his conduct in overriding the will of a sovereign State. About that time Admiral Wandenkolk, a member of the Cabinet under Fonseca and then a Senator, set out from Rio for the scene of the insurrection, leaving behind him a letter to the newspapers, in which he said: "I now break for a moment the silence which I have imposed upon myself, simply to say to Marshal Peixoto, 'General, we will one day meet each other.'"

It seems to be settled that two new saints are soon to be added to the calendar. The Pope is reported to have said that the canonization of Columbus would not be much longer delayed, and such earnest efforts have been making at Rome to canonize Joan of Arc that it is thought they cannot fail of being successful. Columbus's fitness for sainthood has long been a moot point with Catholic historians, but few would venture to oppose it in this quatercentenary year, when, as the saying is, it would be a peculiarly graceful thing to make a saint of the man whom all the world is delighting to honor. It might even reconcile the Duke of Veragua to that enforced poverty which so many of his "good friends" in this country are now invited to view with consternation and to help to abolish, to be known as the lineal descendant of a saint. In connection with the proposal to canonize Joan of Arc, fear was expressed by a considerate French prelate that such an act might wound English susceptibilities. Thereupon the Catholic hierarchy of Great Britain was consulted on this point, and reported that Joan as a saint would be "well received" in their country. In fact, she already has an English cult, many English tourists leaving marks of their regard at her native village, Domremy, and a group of English ladies having lately left a wreath at the foot of her statue in Rouen, with the inscription: "From Englishwomen to the great Frenchwoman." Even if there were any English objection to her canonization, it would doubtless be swept away by observing that it is written in the book of the prophet Shakspere:

"No longer on Saint Denis will we cry,
But Joan la Pucelle shall be France's saint."

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POPULAR FINANCIAL IDEAS.

PROF. SIMON NEWCOMB has an article on "The Problem of Economic Education" in the last *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, in which he makes some shrewd and weighty remarks on the great gulf that is fixed between the conclusions of expert economists and what he calls the "popular political economy." By this phrase he means a body of old ideas, of the folk-lore order, about production and trade and finance, which have been handed down in almost unimpaired vigor from the Middle Ages or earlier to our own day, and subsist in spite of repeated demonstration of their falsity and harmfulness. In almost every other province of human thought and action, as Prof. Newcomb points out, the views of experts have finally come to prevail with the masses; but in the economical field the work and teaching of experts have made no permanent impression, so that "our public thought, our legislation, and even our popular economic nomenclature are what they would have been if Smith, Ricardo, and Mill had never lived, and if such a term as political economy had never been known."

Prof. Newcomb proceeds to prove this, as regards the subject of international trade, with disheartening clearness and force. What he has to say of the nature and danger of popular conceptions in that department might have been applied with equal cogency to those popular ideas of finance which have brought us into the present situation. The country is now in a financial slough on account of its jaunty disregard of the advice and warnings of financial experts for the past fifteen years. Because the question of money and the standard of value had come to be a political one, the idea arose that it could be settled by majorities, and that the "horse-sense" (or mule-sense, as we prefer to call it) of men who had never given ten minutes of steady thought to the monetary question was as good a guide as the opinion of one who had made it a life-long study.

Popular ideas of finance purport to be very clear and simple. They profess to go no further than plain, ordinary intelligence will carry a man, and boast themselves to be very different from the abstract and difficult conceptions of professional economists. Now just here, as Prof. Newcomb points out, is a great error, the truth being that the "use of abstract reasoning, to the exclusion of a due consideration of facts, is a vice in which the public far outdo any school of economists that ever existed." Take, for example, the popular axiom that money ought to be cheap and plenty. That seems as clear as daylight compared with the hard sayings of the economists about standards of value, and parity of exchange, and Gresham's law, and as definite a principle in as close contact with human needs as one could wish for. Yet it is really as abstract a proposition as was ever framed. It appears simple only because the words are familiar, but the idea underlying them is as remote from the facts, and as greatly ignores all experience, as any verbal juggle ever invented by the schoolmen of the Middle Ages. Translate the abstract principle into concrete facts, and your theory of cheap and plentiful money becomes the reality of lowered wages, impaired savings, general distrust, and final panic.

We see these results now in the process of realization, but they were just as clear and inevitable to the trained financier when the first steps towards a depreciated currency were taken as they are to-day. No finer vindication of the scientific principles of finance was ever seen than the fulfilment in the last year of the predictions confidently made by professional economists from the very beginning of the silver craze. Why was no heed given these prophecies? Not simply because of popular ignorance. As Prof. Newcomb remarks, the great body of educated people who stand midway between the expert economists and the masses are the ones who are mainly responsible for the spread of popular economic error. They "are almost at one with the public at large in unwittingly accepting the doctrines of the popular political economy." No one who recalls the history of the past two decades can doubt that this has been true in our financial blundering at least. Think of the powerful newspapers, owned and edited by educated men, which caught up the popular cries, scan the list of college men who have repeatedly voted for free coinage in House and Senate, and it will be hard to deny that Prof. Newcomb is right when he says:

> "The question is not between intelligence on the one side and ignorance on the other, but between the handful of men who have made a special study of economics and the intelligence of the country at large. When that intelligence is won over to the side of the economists, we may expect with entire confidence that the ideas of the masses will soon follow."

It is the most encouraging feature of the situation that, on the silver question, the intelligence of the country has now been won over, and, not only that, but has become aroused and insistent in the cause of sound money, and there are gratifying signs that the masses are following after. Luckily, one idea has become fixed in the popular theory of money, and that is that one dollar must be as good as another at all times and places. This is one great achievement of our national banking system, which has made it for ever impossible to go back to the varying and uncertain currency before the war, and has done a great deal to give us, what England has had for eighty years, a popular idea of the necessity of a single and stable standard of value. It is this notion of the common people which is now working here and there positive discrimination against the silver dollar. The report has gone abroad that that coin is really worth only fifty cents, and we are continually hearing of cases where simple-minded people are refusing to take it for more. This is a popular error, but it is one on the right side, and will do to set off against the many on the wrong side. The vital thing is that the masses have been stirred up to scrutinize the various kinds of currency, and to express their preference for the very best. All that is necessary for those who want to educate the people into sound conceptions on the money question, is to seize upon that fixed idea and keep it alert and in action until our currency shall, in fact, be only the very best. There will be no difficulty in getting all the votes needed for sound money when the voters are made to understand their immense personal interest in having it.

LEGISLATION AGAINST THE RICH.

THERE seems no probability that the country will derive any material gain from our experiment in maintaining the price of silver; but if only a few of the lessons that can be drawn from this experiment are learned, we may find it not unprofitable. Conspicuous among these is the lesson that legislation purporting to be in the interest of the poor as a class and against the rich as a class, while it may hurt the latter somewhat, is almost always especially disastrous to the former. Furthermore, while such legislation is injurious to some of the rich, it may be extremely advantageous to others, although it seldom benefits any of the poor.

A classical example of legislation of this kind is afforded by the usury laws. The theory of these laws is always that the money lender is hard-hearted and grasping; that he watches for the opportunity of driving hard bargains, and is never so happy as when he is taking advantage of the distress of his neighbors. On the other hand, the borrower is conceived as a simple-hearted, virtuous, deserving man who is the victim of unfortunate accidents. Assuming these conceptions to be correct, it seems absurd upon the face of it to undertake legislative interference. Interest beyond the normal rate is simply an extra charge for increased risk of loss. If the money-lender thinks that it would not pay him to lend to a borrower of doubtful solvency at 5 per cent., although he would take the chances at 10, what is going to happen if the law steps in and makes his contract for more than 5 per cent. void? Either the money will not be lent or the rate will be raised beyond 10 per cent., so as to cover the additional risk arising from the violation of the law. In either case it is evident that the poor man is worse off for the meddling of Government, while the rich man may be even better off. It may be asserted without hesitation that the usurer who lets people of doubtful credit have his money at the same rate as people of good credit, merely because of statutory obligation, will not

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continue in business very long. If there are such usurers, they are evidently kind-hearted men, who will be ruined by their beneficence. The really wicked usurers at whom the statute is directed will thus be those who will chiefly profit by it.

Whether these conceptions were ever valid or not we need not inquire, for it is certain that they are nowadays simply grotesque. The money-lender, as an individual, is often known to his countrymen to be an extremely benevolent person. So far as morality in general is concerned, we have never been able to satisfy ourselves that the possession of money had much to do with it, since riches and poverty both have their attendant temptations to evil, and inducements to righteousness. But so far as benevolence is concerned, no man in his senses, except a Congressman or a demagogue, will deny that rich men in this country are astonishingly benevolent. They have covered the land with the evidences of their generosity to the public, and every one who has had any occasion to observe the private affairs of rich people is aware that their liberality to their poor kinsmen, and to the poor in general, is a serious drain upon their income. On the other hand, the poor man who is anxious to borrow because he is in straits, may or may not be deserving and honest. The spectacle of a poor man who is both honest and capable allowed by his well-to-do neighbors to be ruined through misfortune—"the righteous forsaken and his seed begging bread"—is not a common one in any part of this country with which we are acquainted. But it is perhaps nearly as common as that of the usurer engaged in sucking the blood of his victims.

As a matter of fact, however, the individual money-lender is nowadays relatively insignificant. The great lenders are corporations—savings banks, trust companies, insurance companies, banks, etc. Hence there is always an intermediary in the process, and this intermediary can never long carry on the practice of making loans with the expectation of foreclosing his liens and taking the property. Some of our great life-insurance companies have, it is true, made a good deal of money by the rise in the value of real estate which they had to take most reluctantly, but it was a "close shave" with them, and there was a time when they almost sank under their load. They had to assume this load, however, not because of their foresight, but because of their lack of it. They thought their debtors were solvent and their land good security, but they were mistaken in both respects. No doubt some of the investment companies operating in newly settled regions have charged extremely high rates for their loans. But it has frequently proved to be the case that these rates have been too low rather than too high, for the whole investment has turned out a loss. Again, it is to be remembered that until recently it was so common as to be almost the rule that a farmer taking up a quarter-section could pay its price out of the proceeds of the crop of the first year or two. If such abnormal profits are not immoral, there seems nothing very wicked in lending at high interest.

In short, when a man's business is lending other people's money, he cannot prosper long unless he learns to turn away from the seductions of high interest and to fix his mind upon the security. When a loan is offered, that is the first question to be settled, and if that is settled satisfactorily he will then get as high a rate as he can. But legislation in favor of cheap money as a boon to the poor man and a rebuke to the rich puts all these money-lenders on their guard. The "poor man" who clamors for such legislation may get it, but he will get no one to lend him money, be it cheap or dear; and even the honest poor man has a hard time of it. But the rich man who has money to lend, although he has to scrutinize his security very closely, finds much consolation in the rate of interest which the situation enables him to obtain. What has been the effect upon the banks of the hostility of the People's party and of the silver folly? Many of the poor ones have failed, thus losing the money of their depositors, who are not of the richest class. But the rich ones have, so to speak, coined money. As they did not bring on the trouble, and would gladly have been relieved from an unusual strain, they cannot be blamed for this. Whatever blame attaches to it belongs to the demagogues who insisted upon legislating for cheap money with the result of making it dear.

KNOWLEDGE ON SIGHT.

THE French have long been famous for their quickness in seeing and their logic in applying great principles, and hence it is no surprise to find a Frenchman grasping and extending a principle which has been thought peculiarly an American possession. We refer to the great discovery made by pictorial journalists, that a picture is better than words to describe an event or convey a moral, that "cuts" will do what "text" cannot—whether it be a question of portraying a civil war in Samoa, or winning contributions for the victims of a calamity or votes for a great political party. It is in pursuance of this discovery that the conductors of our great dailies have taken the position that whoever will may write the editorials and print the news, if they may be allowed to educate the American people by newspaper pictures.

Now see how much better they do these things in France, as shown by the principles and practice of M. Grand-Carteret. His superiority over our newspaper practitioners is revealed, in the first place, by his profounder grasp of the truth which underlies the whole business. We have often tried to extract a coherent theory of the picturesque newspaper from the minds that are in control of it, but have never been able to get anything that was satisfactory. Some of the blunter editorial intellects have confessed that there was no rational principle in the matter whatever, and that it was all a simple question of "giving the public what it wants." Others, less frank and also less clear, have vaguely talked about "resting the eye," the "interdependence of the senses," the satisfaction of seeing a portrait of the man you are reading about, even though it turns out to be the portrait of somebody else. This fumbling after a consistent theory seems feeble and foolish enough beside the Frenchman's lucid exposition of the true principle. He goes to the bottom of things at one stroke by laying down the broad proposition, "People do not read any more; they only look."

Obviously this accounts for everything, and our puzzled journalists, who have been acting all this while on a great sociological truth without knowing it, ought to be devoutly thankful to M. Grand-Carteret for giving the only rational explanation of their conduct. But in strict logic, they ought also to be prepared to go with him in his thorough application of the principle, and do, what we have always maintained they would be, in the end, bound to do on their own principles, and that is to abolish "text" altogether and rely exclusively upon "cuts." With the basic truth once settled, that we must give the people pictures because they do not read any more, it is the merest paltering to stop short of the logical inference that it is a sheer waste of good type to put anything in the papers except pictures. The Frenchman has too logical a head for any such miserable truckling to antiquated notions as even our most picturesque editors are guilty of in still going through the motions of printing matter ostensibly to be read. Why print reading-matter for a non-reading public? asks M. Grand-Carteret; and really we do not see that there is any answer to that question.

He is truly a terrible fellow for logic, and does not at all limit the application of his principle to newspapers. They are but a part of the vast machinery of modern education, but the principle that applies there applies everywhere. "People do not read any more; they only look." Then what is the use of writing histories? "No use whatever," replies M. Grand-Carteret, with admirable consistency; "if you wish to teach people history, show them some pictures." With a faith in his public as sublime as his consistency, he proposes to issue a series of historical text-books—picture-books, we mean—based upon the supposition that they are to be looked at, not read. He forcibly argues that precisely that is what is done with histories printed on the old plan, and pertinently asks if those who come to scoff at history in uninteresting type may not remain to pray over history tricked out with all the charms of the illustrator's art.

So far, we confess, we have no fault

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to find with M. Grand-Carteret, and rather feel much in his debt for having given so convincing an account of the real origin of illustrated daily journalism. But we cannot so heartily go with him when he treats his theory that people do not read any more, and can have only a pictorial education, not only as a fact, but as a desirable fact. He seems to regard the growing aversion to reading, and the increasing fondness for labor-saving and thought-saving "graphic representation," as a part of the progress of civilization. To us, on the contrary, it has always appeared as a distinct reversion to barbarism, being nothing more nor less than a recurrence to the picture-writing and sign-language of savages. The step from such primitive modes of conveying thought to the more complicated but infinitely more rapid and accurate methods of spoken and written language, most sociologists have regarded as a mighty advance. Modern man can get along with the old ways, no doubt, and they might not be immediately destructive of civilization. We have read of an artist travelling in Sweden, ignorant of the language of the country, who was able to make his wants tolerably well known by the aid of his clever pencil—drawing a picture of himself getting out of bed when the sun was just on the horizon, for example, as a way of telling his hotel "boots" at what hour he wished to be called in the morning. But that seems to us civilization under difficulties, not its supreme and happy development.

It is argued in favor of teaching history by pictures that a vivid impression is best secured in that way. But the great desideratum is accuracy and fulness, not vividness, of impression. It is one thing to have such a work as Green's illustrated history of England, where faithful representations of the dress and furniture and architecture and ceremonies of the different periods do indeed help to complete the knowledge gained from patient study of the text; but what could be more shallow, what more misleading, than to give the idea that an acquaintance with English history could be had by looking at even the most admirable illustrations? And suppose the labels get disarranged, as so often happens with the daily illustrated press. What advantage is there in deriving from a picture a "vivid impression" of the seven bishops being rowed to the Tower, if it turns out that it is only a crippled Oxford crew that you have been looking at? Is it maintained that pictures will remain in the memory when words are forgotten? But there are other ways of cultivating the memory. There is the old way implied in the story about himself told by Benvenuto Cellini, that when he once saw a salamander crawl out of the fire, his grandfather immediately gave him a sound beating to make sure that he should never forget such an extraordinary occurrence. It was long a firm belief that a good whipping was an excellent mordant for the memory, and, for our part, we should be entirely willing to have the pictorial editors adopt that method of making the impressions derived from their illustrations not only "vivid" but lasting. They ought to offer a stout birch rod, instead of a chromo, with each issue, and in that way agreeably vary the torture they inflict.

AUSTRALIAN BANKS.

SYDNEY, June 12, 1893.

BETWEEN the 5th of April and the 17th of May, there occurred in Australia a series of bank suspensions, involving sums of money of enormous magnitude considering that the total population of the Colonies is but three and one-half millions. On April 1, besides numerous smaller financial institutions, there were in operation eleven important banks of issue, having total assets of about $750,000,000, and liabilities to depositors of about $600,000,000. On the 18th of May only three remained open, their total assets being about $325,000,000, and deposits $250,000,000. It would seem at first that nothing short of a revolution could have caused such a collapse. As the suspensions rapidly followed each other, panic prevailed, and the Governments of the different colonies considered themselves called on to interfere, their first rash step being to proclaim in the colony of Victoria, which had suffered most, a five days' bank holiday. Government interference in such matters is seldom wise; but fortunately, in this case, the banks were wiser than their rulers, and the bold action of the two great banks, the Australasia and the Union, in disregarding the Government proclamation, and carrying on their regular business, so far as they legally could, established public confidence in their powers to meet any demands, and gave time for the frenzy to calm down.

One of the facts most strikingly brought into prominence by these events is the immense size and power of the three banks that remain. The Bank of New South Wales has a paid-up capital of $6,250,000, reserve fund $5,000,000, total assets $125,000,000, and deposits of $100,000,000. Of the deposits $11,000,000 is money loaned by English depositors, and $89,000,000 is borrowed in the colonies. Next to this in size come the Australasia and the Union, with figures about 20 per cent. less, except paid-up capital, which is larger, being $8,000,000 and $7,500,000, respectively. Of the banks that have suspended, two had assets of $70,000,000 each, three of over $50,000,000, and three of over $40,000,000; the proportion of British to colonial money on deposit varying from 3 to 60 per cent. Each had a paid-up capital of over $3,000,000, and none had been established less than forty years. Institutions of such magnitude must command respect in any portion of the financial world, and it seems probable, even on slight consideration, that it must be some defect in principle rather than in detail that has caused their suspension.

Banking in Australia differs somewhat from the systems in other countries. There are no private bankers or national banks; all foreign exchange, letters of credit, and Government business being arranged by the ordinary banks. Their business has been very profitable, one institution having for seventeen years paid dividends of 25 per cent. per annum, and accumulated reserve funds exceeding its paid-up capital by more than 50 per cent., its $100 shares standing at $600 on the Stock Exchange. The funds in the hands of the banks were in some cases twenty times as great as their own capital, these funds being placed with them by the public, repayable in from one to three years, and at rates of interest of from 3½ to 4½ per cent. per annum. In every case, more than the paid-up capital, reserve funds, and credit balances of current accounts, on which no interest is allowed, is tied up in the coin and bullion reserves and premises occupied. Hence, all profit for the shareholders and the interest due on the deposits must be earned by the use of the deposits. On an average, the banks probably had to pay 4 per cent. for money secured to them for two years, and this money they could use at 7 to 8 per cent. in regular banking business. A very large proportion of the business firms in Australia borrow from their banks on daily balances, paying a minimum of 8 per cent. per annum, the American custom of discounting notes for fixed amounts for a definite time being unknown. Three-quarters at least of the local transactions are settled by promissory notes at from three to four months, nine-tenths of which are discounted by the holders, who pay at the rate of 7 to 8 per cent. per annum for the accommodation.

But it is quite clear that the enormous sums described could not all be used in this way, and as labor-troubles rendered capitalists less ready to use their money in manufacturing, and a general depression restricted mercantile business, more and more money was offered to the banks on fixed deposit, the owners preferring to accept a lower rate of interest and avoid the trouble and difficulty of investing for themselves, and to secure, as they thought, absolute safety. Hence, for years, all the banks had found their deposits steadily increasing in amount, and continually renewed as they fell due, and gradually they began to look upon these deposits almost as capital, and to think less seriously of the prospect of being called on to repay them. Hence, also, they began to use these funds in ways approaching the nature of fixed investments more nearly than has been found to be safe. Money advanced on buildings and land cannot be called in as needed, and though no doubt the investments were generally profitable, they were clearly suitable only for the use of funds over which the investors had absolute control. Even of the suspended banks all held from 20 to 30 per cent. of their liabilities to the public in coin and liquid securities, but when these reserves were once seriously encroached on, it proved impossible to realize on the investments rapidly enough to meet liabilities as they accrued from depositors calling for their money as due. Finding, therefore, that sooner or later their liquid assets must be exhausted, a decision was reached while good coin balances remained to close the doors and try to make terms with the creditors.

Just what caused the trouble to come at this particular moment it is hard to see; but one bank, finding itself hard pressed, decided to suspend, even though offered assistance by the others, and this suspension caused the runs on the others which have had such disastrous results. In a way, therefore, these suspensions are hardly actual failures, for they are modified a good deal by the fact that all show very much over the twenty shillings in the pound. The cause is an inability to meet an immediate liability with a deferred asset. The difficulty having arrived, a decidedly new method of solving it was devised, and schemes of reconstruction, so called, have already been put forward by all the suspended institutions, and good progress made with them. At first it was

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proposed that depositors should take preferred shares for a portion of their deposits. This has now been abandoned, and practically simply an extension of time of from five to seven years has been granted to the banks in which to pay off their liabilities, calls being made on the shareholders for a portion of the liability on the shares, the money thus paid to be an additional security to the depositors. Difficulties have arisen in some cases from the difference between English and colonial laws; under the latter an arrangement acceded to by three-quarters of the creditors in number and amount and sanctioned by the Court is final. In England this is not the case, and already the English depositors are taking steps to test the validity of the compromises. Still it is perfectly clear that nothing better can now be done than to grant time, and the position must be faced by all.

What it means to the community at large is hardly yet realized; but so much wealth cannot be tied up for such long periods without involving an immense change in the whole scale of social life. A bitter time is before the Australians, and the strictest economy, public and private, will be necessary for some years to come. Yet, while the resources of the country —wool, wheat, and gold—remain as sound as ever, and continually increasing in value, and when Australia, as New Zealand already has done, proves its ability to do without assistance, assistance may again be safely looked for from Great Britain, where capital accumulates so much more rapidly than use can be found for it within its own confines. In future, too, it is safe to assume that the borrower will more carefully consider what he borrows, and not look on caution as the duty of the lender only; for as well as to the lavish borrowing of the past, some blame for the collapse that has occurred may fairly be attached to careless and foolish lending.

J. E. Bullard.

PASQUIER'S NAPOLEONIC MEMOIRS.—II.

Paris, July 7, 1893.

The death of the Duc d'Enghien changed the disposition of many Royalists towards Bonaparte. Before this sad event, Pasquier had taken the resolution to accept office; he changed his mind. Chateaubriand resigned his diplomatic post. In Europe the effect of the execution of the Duke was even greater than in France; the law of nations had been manifestly violated. Bonaparte went his way, without minding the murmurs of a small oppcsition; he exchanged his title of Consul for the title of Emperor, was consecrated by the Pope in person, and his reconciliation with the Church became his real consecration as a sovereign. "What right," says Pasquier, "had a Frenchman to understand his duties differently from the chief of the Catholic Church? What could the Royalists say who had never separated the cause of royalty from the cause of religion? No; whatever may have happened afterwards, whatever part I may have taken afterwards, nothing will prevent me from saying even to-day that after 1805 Bonaparte was the legitimate sovereign of France, in the eyes of the nation taken as a whole." After Austerlitz, Pasquier changed his mind, and, feeling the need of some occupation, he accepted office.

"It was not, however," he says, "without great hesitation. I feared the discontent of the society in which I lived; I knew that many intolerant people would not forgive me for the step I was going to take. But there were many strong reasons to oppose to their criticisms. Was it possible to forget one of the hardest lessons taught by the Revolution? Had it not taught us that our reason commanded us to sacrifice our repugnance in order to work, with all our might, against the return of such calamities as we had seen? Was not the best method that which consisted in placing around the Government the men who could protect it against revolutionary ideas?"

Pasquier asked Cambacérès to place him among the *maîtres des requêtes*—a new creation, then, as now, attached to the Council of State; they make reports on the various affairs which are brought before this Council. Pasquier tells us with candor: "The cause of the Bourbons was the cause of misfortune, and had received my first attachment; I belonged to it by my birth, by my convictions, by the sacrifices I had made; it was impossible for me not to preserve the profoundest sympathy for it; but I had come to the conclusion that, if this cause could ever triumph again, it would be at a very distant date and after events which it was impossible to foresee." So his sympathies were shelved for an indefinite period, and we shall see him now in the Emperor's Council of State. Napoleon had become for him the "necessary" man. Pasquier gives us interesting portraits of those who became the chief and obedient instruments of the Emperor; of his former colleagues in the Consulate—Lebrun, Cambacérès—who had become archtreasurer and archchancellor; of Fouché, of Talleyrand, of Barras.

Fouché was fit only for the Ministry of Police:

"He had seen everything, known everything. I add that he cared seriously for nothing. Without affection for anybody; of a perfidy which was never equalled, capable of sacrificing for the smallest interest the man who considered himself the day before his best friend; possessing in the highest degree, if not the ability, at least the impudence, of a liar; gifted with a light, superficial mind, often happy in repartee, and maintaining always an imperturbable coolness, it cost him nothing to betray everybody, beginning with Bonaparte, though he had served him, in the first period of his elevation, with a fidelity which had all the appearance of devotion."

The portrait is not flattered, but it is true; but what shall we say of the portrait of Talleyrand? Hatred of Talleyrand seems to have been the moving, perhaps the only real, passion of Pasquier. He evidently considered him as the personification of all that is base, vile, and criminal. "M. de La Fayette told me, some time ago, that, on the day of the Federation, the Bishop of Autun was mounting the steps of the altar, with the holy chalice in his hands. He sees M. de La Fayette, commander-general of the National Guards, sword in hand, near the steps, and whispers to him: 'Don't make me laugh.'" Pasquier calls him "this worthy priest of all the revolutionary immoralities." He describes him as a gambler, a coward; he shows him coming back after the Terror, obtaining from Barras, through the influence of Mme. de Staël, the portfolio of Foreign Affairs, using his post for his private fortunes. "This talent for making money never abandoned him; he used it on all occasions, and no treaty is known which did not furnish him an occasion. . . . Later, secularization in Germany and the arrangements which the new territorial partitions occasioned, became a fresh source of profits, and much greater than the first. I have heard them valued by well-informed persons at four millions at least." Sainte-Beuve, who wrote a severe article on Talleyrand in his 'Causeries du Lundi,' says in it: "M. de Talleyrand values himself at the sum of sixty millions, which he received altogether from the Powers, great or small, during his diplomatic career."

Pasquier speaks of Talleyrand's marriage with Mme. Grand in these terms: "To marry an old mistress, who has been the mistress of twenty others, when nothing remains to her but a glaring and well-recognized stupidity, when all traces of her beauty are effaced, etc." Mme. Grand was remarkably silly, and it was said that Talleyrand married her because Napoleon ordered him to do so. The marriage took place furtively at Épinay, in the Valley of Montmorency. "If there was a circumstance on which M. de Talleyrand never opened himself to anybody, it was this. I have heard it said by M. de Choiseul-Gouffier, one of his intimate acquaintances, that he had employed all his acuteness (and he had much) in trying to make Talleyrand explain himself on this subject, and that he never succeeded."

The war with Prussia, the victory at Jena, marked the culmination of Napoleon's successes.

"At no moment of his career did he enjoy, with more apparent security, the favors of fortune. Generally, in the midst of his greatest successes, he affected an anxious air, as if he wished it to be understood that his great designs were not yet accomplished, and that people ought not to think that there remained nothing more to do. . . . I think I see him still as he was on that day [the day of a Te-Deum at Notre-Dame], dressed in a costume which, though it was a little theatrical, was noble and fine. His features, always calm and serious, recalled the cameos which represent the Roman emperors. He was small; still his whole person, in this imposing ceremony, was in harmony with the part which he was playing. A sword glittering with diamonds was at his side, and the famous diamond called the Regent was on the pommel. Its brilliancy did not let us forget that this sword was the hardest and the most victorious that had ever appeared since those of Alexander and Cæsar."

Pasquier describes the ceremony of the marriage of Jerome, King of Westphalia, with a Princess of Wirtemberg, which took place at the Tuileries, in the Gallery of Diana: "All the magnificence of the most sumptuous court was exhibited. The quantity of pearls, diamonds, precious stones of all sorts, was really prodigious, and we were all the more surprised because we remembered the miseries of the end of the century." Pasquier says incidentally, speaking of the King of Wirtemberg (he was only a Grand Duke before Napoleon erected the Grand-Duchy of Westphalia into a kingdom):

"This King, who gave his daughter to Jerome, could not be ignorant that Jerome had contracted a first marriage in America, with a person of the most honorable family, and that this marriage had been consecrated after the forms and the laws of the country where it had been accomplished. The Emperor had declared this engagement null and illegal, since he, as the chief of the family, had not given his consent to it; but could such a motive, borrowed from the customs of certain sovereign families, be valid out of France, and especially in America?"

Talleyrand seemed at the height of favor; but

"La Roche Tarpéienne est près du Capitole."

Napoleon was aware that Talleyrand often made reflections on the Empire's want of solidity. Talleyrand had told the Duc de Dalberg, one of his confidants, that if Napoleon died in battle, his brother Joseph ought to be chosen his successor. Talleyrand was made Vice-Grand Elector, a purely honorary title, and had to abandon the portfolio of Foreign Affairs. Napoleon ceased to work with him and kept him at a distance. Few persons perceived the change, but Pasquier understood it well. Pasquier was now thirty years old; he

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had an independent fortune; he was not one of the creatures of the Revolution. "Napoleon," he says, "had an admirable instinct for appreciating the dispositions of those who surrounded him. I appeared, therefore, to him, from the beginning, as a man of whom one could expect good services, but who would never belong to him as completely as he liked." In reality, Pasquier never belonged completely to anybody but himself. He was the type of the servant of the State; so was Molé, who was more sympathetic towards Napoleon than Pasquier. The Emperor liked old names; and these names, if they did not belong to the old feudal nobility, belonged to the old parliamentary families.

Pasquier openly accuses Talleyrand of having betrayed Napoleon at Erfurt, and of having secretly helped the Emperor Alexander in the conference which took place in that town. He warned Alexander at the house of Princess Thurn und Taxis against certain projects of Napoleon; he considered himself less as a servant of the Emperor than as a sort of arbitrator of the destinies of Europe. "Napoleon's resolution to take M. de Talleyrand with him to Erfurt was an error. He had no need of him, and he showed too much confidence in a man who was secretly discontented and whose dangerous character he well knew." Talleyrand's discontent had free play during the expedition to Spain. He reconciled himself with Fouché, who had long been his open enemy; together they formed the project, if Napoleon died, to have him replaced by Murat, the King of Naples. While Napoleon was in Spain, letters were written to Murat, asking him to hold himself in readiness; these letters were intercepted by Prince Eugène, the Viceroy of Lombardy, and were sent to Napoleon. He came back from Spain; the storm broke at the first reception he held at the Tuileries. Pasquier gives us the whole detail of this terrible scene. Before all the high officers of state, Napoleon said to Talleyrand:

"You are a thief, a coward, a man without honor; you do not believe in God; all your lifetime you have betrayed everybody; there is nothing sacred for you; you would sell your father. I have covered you with wealth, and there is nothing that you would not undertake against me. For ten months you have had the impudence, because my affairs in Spain were going wrong, to say that you always blamed my enterprise there, whereas you gave me the first idea of it and persistently urged it. And that man, that unfortunate [the Duc d'Enghien], by whom was I advised of the place of his residence? Who incited me to be severe with him? What are your projects? What do you want? What do you hope for? Do you dare to say? I ought to break you like a glass. I can do it, but I despise you too much to take the trouble."

Talleyrand remained impassible; he was apparently insensible. The courtiers drew away from him. He allowed Napoleon to expend his rage, and went home silently without complaining. The Emperor maintained him in all his dignities.

Correspondence.

THE WILL OF JOHN WASHINGTON, 2D.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have discovered one more of the early Washington wills, which confirms what has hitherto been conjectural. John, the immigrant, had three children, of whom the eldest was a son John, and the second a son Lawrence. From this Lawrence the President traced descent. Of John almost nothing has certainly been known; and in drawing up my pedigree of the family, I was unable even to determine the name of his wife. The Hayward will, first printed in this journal, gave a family of four sons to a John Washington, and I conjectured them to be the children of this John. The matter was of some moment, as one of the children was named Henry, and that was a name not occurring in the immediate descendants of either immigrant. I have found the will of John Washington of Westmoreland, and it confirms the conjecture I made when noticing the Hayward will. The four sons are noted, and his wife Ann. His sister Anne, who married Francis Wright, may have died before the will was made, as she receives no mention, nor do any heirs of her body. The Francis Dade mentioned in the will married a sister-in-law of John's cousin, also named John, and son of the immigrant Lawrence. The document also proves that the power of attorney printed by Mr. Conway as executed by the widow of John the immigrant, was really executed by the widow of her son John, the maker of the will. The will of the immigrant was probated in 1677, and that of his son in 1697, while the power was dated 1698. Further, the name of Thomas Howes occurs as a witness to the will of John second and to the widow's power of attorney. The copy of this will which I use was made by George Lee, who married the widow of George Washington's half-brother, Lawrence Washington.

Worthington C. Ford.

Washington, July 13, 1893.

In the name of God amen this 22d day of January in the year of our Lord, 1697-8 in the ninth year of the Reign of our Sovereign Lord King William I John Washington of Washing [ton] parish in the County of Westmld Being sick & weak of Body but of Perfect Mind & Memory thanks be Given to God therefore Calling into mind the Mortality of my Body & Knowing it is appoynted for all [ ] to dye doe make & ordain my Last will & Testamt in maner & form following, that is first & principally I give my Soul into ye hands of God whoe gave it me & for my Body I Commend it to the Earth to be buryed in Christian & Decent manner in ye Burying place on ye pla[n]tation where I now live, by my Father, Mother & Brothers nothinge Doubting but at the general resurreccon I shall receive ye same again by the Mighty power of God & as touching such [ ] it hath pleased God to Bless me with [in] this Life, I give devize bequeath and dispose ye same in Manner & form following first I give & Bequeath unto my welbeloved wife Ann Washington the plantacon I now dwell on at appamattox Dureing Her Natural Life. Item I give & Bequeath unto my Eldest son Law: Washington that tract of Land which I Bought of Mr. Francis Dade Commonly called Barnets Quarter it lyes on uper Machotickes In Stafford County. I give it to my sd son & His Heirs for ever. Item I give to my son John Washington that tract of Land wch I now live on after the decease of my sd wife, to him & his Heirs for Ever. but if it please God that my sd son John should die before my said Wife then I give the said Tract to my son Lawrence Washington to him & his Heirs for Ever, & if Both my sons John and Lawr should die before my sd wife or without issue of their Bodys Lawfully begotten then I give it to my son Nathaniel to him and his Heirs for ever, & if my three sons Lawr John & Natht should die before my wife or without Issue Lawfully begotten of their bodys then I give the sd Tract to my son Henry Washington to him & his for Ever & if it please God that all my Four sons should dye before my sd wife or without Issue of their Bodys Lawfully begotten then I give to the next heir at Law to him and his heirs for Ever. Item I give to my son John Washington that Tract of Land Lying on pope's creek wch John Flewelling now Lives on to him & his Heirs for Ever. Item I give to my son Natht Washington that tract of Land wch Lyes at ye Head of Appomattatox Creek which Anthony Rawlins & Joseph Smith & John Betts now Lives on to him & his Heirs for Ever. Item I give to my son Henry Washington that tract of Land which was Between me & Robert Richards John Whitcraft lives now on part of it it is in Stafford County on the Dam side which the head of [ ] Machotick makes I give it to my sd son & his Heirs for Ever. Item it is my will that if my son Lawe should dye without issue of his Body Lawfully begotten or before he arrives to the age of Twenty one years that then my son John Washington have the tract of Land wh I bought of Mr Francis Dade called Barnetts Quarter to him & his Heirs for Ever. Item It is my will that if my son John Washington should dye before he Come to the age of twenty one Years or without Issue of his Body Lawfully begotten that then I give to my son Lawe the tract of Land that I now Live on after my wife's decease to him and his Heirs for Ever and I give that Tract of Land on Pope's Creek that John Flewelling Lives on to my son Nathaniel Washington to him & his heirs for Ever. Item it is my will that if my son Natht Washington should dye without Issue of his body Lawfully begotten or before he arrives to the age of Twenty one Years that then I give to my son Jn Washington that tract of Land at the head of Appamattax Creek which Anthony Rawlins & Jos: Smith & John Beatts Lives on to him and his Heirs for Ever. Item It is my will that if any three of my afores'd sons should dye without issue of their Bodyes Lawfully begotten or before they arrive to the Age of twenty one years that then all the Aforementioned lands I give to that son which is Living & if it please god that they should all dye without Issues of their Bodys Lawfully begotten, or before they arrive to the age of twenty one years, or if I have no more Issue that then I give to my wife those two tracts of Land that lyes in Stafford County to her and her heirs for ever. the other three tracts to bee divided between what Children it may please God to send my brother if he have but one I give it to him or her if more the Eldest son to have his Choice of the tracts the next Eldest his next choice if two sons if it be a Daughter, that she have her Choice after her brother to them & their heirs forever. Item it is my will that all my p'sonl Estate in Generall be *equally divided into five parts, and that my wife have* her first choice & my son Lawrence the next my son John the next my son Natht the next & my son Henry the other. Item it is my will that if it please God any of my sons should dye without Issue of their bodyes Lawfully begotten or before they arrive to the age of Twenty one years that then his part of the p'sonall Estate be divided between my wife and the other three sons Living & if it please God that three of my sons should dye without issue of their bodyes Lawfully begotten or before they arrive at the age of twenty one years that then the p'sonall Estate be equally divided between my Wife and that son that is Living. and if it please God that if all my sd sons should die without Issue of their bodyes Lawfully begotten or before they arrive at the age of twenty one years that then my p'sonall Estate be Divided Equally between my Wife Ann Washington & my brother's children. it is my will that my brother &* tuition of my son Lawe Washington & that my sd Brother have the Keeping of my sd sons Estate & of this my Last [will] & Testamt. I make & ordain my welbeloved brother Capt Lawrence Washington & my Loving wife Ann Washington my full & whole Execr & Executrix. and I do hereby utterly Disallow revoke and annul all & every other former Testamt Wills Legacies bequests & Exts by me in any wise before this time named willed & bequested ratifying & confirming this & none other to be my last will & Testamt.

In witness whereof I have hereunto set my hand & seale this day & year as afores'd signed sealed published pronounced & declared by the said John Washington as his Last Will & Testament in the Presence of

Item it is also my will that Mrs. Elizabeth Hardidge have my Watch that was given to me by Capt Wm. Hardidg's Will. Item it is my will that my welbeloved godson John Dudlstone have a Gold Signet which was given me by his father on his death bed. Item it is my will that my wellbeloved Capt Lawre Washington have my wearing Ring.

John Washington.

John Scott Thomas Howes
A. Webster Peter Hyott.

*Some words omitted in MS.

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Westm'l'd. At a Court held for the s[d] county the 23[d] day of Feby 1697

The above will was duly provd & a probat thereof granted to the Exec[rs] therein named and ordered to be recorded, P[r] cur.

Recordat 5 May 1697

Ja Westcomb Cle. Comp. P[r]

Copy Test

George Lee

C. C. W.

AN UNPARDONABLE AMERICANISM, ETC.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: What is here specially alluded to is a misuse, widely current in the United States, of the verb *predicate*.

Before touching on that solecism, however, I wish to show to what extent words referable, for their source, to *prædicare* as employed in late Latin have been overlooked by dictionaries of the otiose school of Johnson and Richardson. For example, of the conjugates about to be exemplified, only one of them excepted, there is no recognition whatever by those lexicographers:

"A Magical Monk in Spain, or some Fryer *Prædicant*, was familiar with a Nobleman that had a fair wife." Rev. John Gaule, *Mag-astromancer*, etc. (1652), p. 355.

"Prayant as well as *Predicant*." "A dispirited, . . . proletary, *predicant*, not many degrees removed from a mendicant, condition." Bp. John Gauden, *Ecclesiæ Anglicanæ Suspiria* (1659), pp. 93, 250.

"That they be satisfied with the Title of Friers *Prædicants*," etc. Rev. John Sergeant, *History of Monastical Conventions* (1686), p. 56. Not to go outside of English, the construction here seen is that of *letters patents*, long very common.

"The last deceased and the new-born year join in presenting us with three *predicant* tourists." *Westminster Review*, vol. x., p. 197 (1829).

"Timorousness of *Predicants* occasioned thereby." "Holy liues of professors and *predicants*." "Or doe they well who presse it upon Monkish *predicants*, from Pauls example?" Rev. Dr. William Sclater, *Briefe Exposition upon II. Thessalonians* (1626), pp. 219, 220, 260 (ed. 1629).

"Dominicans or *Prædicants*." Rev. John Sergeant, *ut supra*, p. 37. Also pp. 55, 56, 57.

"But, though these strolling *Predicants* have allured some itching Ears," etc. Bp. George Lavington, *The Enthusiasm of Methodists and Papists Compared* (1749-'51), vol. i, p. 14 (ed. 1754). But earlier than the earliest of these quotations for the substantive *predicant* is one from Hooker, given by Dr. Johnson's editor, Archdeacon Todd, and, it appears, misunderstood by him, and, in his wake, by Webster, Worcester, Dr. Latham, and others, to signify "one that affirms anything." Does it mean, with Hooker, "a Dominican"?

"She likewise takes off Warburton to the greatest exactness; his very voice, and the mien of his visage, as he contemplates, and as he *predicates*." Thomas Amory, *Memoirs of Ladies of Great Britain* (1755), vol. i., p. 97 (ed. 1769).

"I propose coming up on Monday, the 12th, and *predicating* the 13th." Rev. John Keble (1832), in Cardinal Newman's *Letters* (1891), vol. i., p. 277.

"On account of the singularity of the *predication*, I wish some fair Arcadians of your acquaintance would mind it, who seem but little to regard the descriptions of a heavenly spirit from the pulpit." Thomas Amory, *ut supra*, vol. i., p. 28.

"If heresy is not increased by it, it must be immaterial to the feelings of Lord Sidmouth and of the Imperial Parliament, whether Mr. Shufflebottom preaches at Bungay, and Mr. Ringletub at Ipswich; or whether an artful vicissitude is adopted, and the order of insane *predication* reversed." Rev. Sydney Smith (1811), *Works* (ed. 1850), p. 198.

"How rational is it, then, to conclude (but I only offer it for Argument-sake) that, was Adam reposses'd of Paradise again, and premonished of Sin (as we are daily precautioned), whether or no it might not be thought to raise a Circumspection in him to evade the Serpent, the Sin, and the Woman's Temptation? Into this Opinion most Ages have crept; and our Modern Assertors and *Predicators* approve on't." Richard Franck, *Northern Memoirs* (1658), p. 7 (ed. 1694).

"The main design of their [the Dominicans'] Institution being to Read, Preach, Write, and Expound the Word of God, which gives the occasion of naming them Prædicants or *Prædicatories*." Rev. John Sergeant, *ut supra*, p. 55.

Here and there in literature, *predicate* seems, by a bold Latinism, to imply "commendation," "eulogy":

"The more her Vertue is *predicated* by her Cousen, the more she humbles her selfe." Anthony Stafford, *The Femall Glory* (1635), p. 66 (ed. 1860).

"That Colledge . . . will for ever . . . *predicate* yo[r] Bounty by w[ch] it hath beene so much beautified and inlarged." *Id.* (before 1641), *A Just Apology*, *ibid.*, p. xxiv.

"This Wisdom from Above, of which the Apostle so highly *predicates*, is, we see, the same as Wisdom revealed immediately from Heaven." Bp. William Warburton, *The Doctrine of Grace* (1750), book ii., ch. vi.

"The interest of such men requires that the spirit of arms and of arts be extinguished. They will *predicate* peace, that the people may be tractable to them; but a religion altogether pacific is the fomenter of wars and the nurse of crimes, alluring Sloth from within and Violence from afar." W. S. Landor, *Imaginary Conversations*, *Lucullus and Cæsar* (1829).

From post-classical Latin we have, farther, the ordinary *predicate*, that briefly definable by "affirm," which some one among our republican predecessors succeeded in setting on foot as a synonym of "found," "base." Long ago, as those who consult our Dictionaries are aware, it was such a synonym with Chief Justice Marshall and President John Quincy Adams; and, notwithstanding reiterated protests, it has been so with countless others, down to our own day, yet, as lately as 1880, it had the tacit approval of Dr. Webster's editors. As to its occurrence orally, an American who has not heard it a hundred times must have had an exceptional experience. Even Dr. O. W. Holmes has lent it his countenance; writing, as he does, in 'The Autocrat of the Breakfast-table,' ch. vi., of "any opinion *predicated* on the supposition that," etc.

Of the objectionable expressions which, far more freely than is generally supposed, besprinkle the pages of the late Mr. J. R. Lowell, here, relevantly to the abuse animadverted on, is a specimen:

"His moroseness, his party-spirit, and his personal vindictiveness are all *predicated upon* his Inferno, and *upon* a misapprehension or careless reading even of that." *Among my Books*, *Second Series* (1870), p. 46 (ed. 1876).

As usually employed, the verb *predicate* signifies not merely 'affirm,' but 'affirm as a basis of deduction.' Besides that the idea of affirmation is all-essential to the word, there is indication, by it, of a ground for something. In the American misapplication of the term, while the latter fact is recognized, the former is unrecognized. To come to Mr. Lowell, did he mean, by the sentence quoted, that moroseness, on the part of Dante, is asserted in consequence of the Inferno? Or did he mean that the imputation of moroseness to the poet is based upon the Inferno? His "predicated upon," to import 'affirmed because of,' 'alleged on account of,' is a mode of speech neither authorized nor tolerable. Clearly, he would never have written as he wrote except for his familiarity with the illiterate and unwarranted use of *predicate* just adverted to, and its unconscious influence on him. Missing both English and American, he has fallen between two stools.

Attractive to the eye, and no less seductive to the ear, from its seemly amplitude, *predicate* has, moreover, often been impressed, at least in England, to serve the place of *predict;* just as *prædicare* was substituted by Tertullian for *prædicere*. This blunder, according to a review-article in the London *Spectator* of July 6, 1867, conspicuously marked, at that time, "the language of Parliament." It has certainly been common elsewhere than in Parliament; and it has repeatedly been censured. Dr. W. B. Hodgson quotes for it authors so respectable as Mr. Anthony Trollope, Lord S. G. Osborne, Sir H. L. Bulwer, Mrs. Lynn Linton, and so on. He might have added the Rev. Sydney Smith, Charles Dickens, and leading articles in the London *Times*. I find it, indeed, in works published so long ago as 1789 and 1795. Has it yet crossed the Atlantic?

F. H.

Marlesford, England, June 24, 1893.

Notes.

G. P. Putnam's Sons' fall announcements include 'The Writings of Thomas Paine, Political, Sociological, Religious, and Literary,' edited in four volumes by Moncure D. Conway; the conclusion of Worthington C. Ford's edition of the 'Writings of Washington' (vol. xiv.), and the continuation of Paul Leicester Ford's 'Writings and Correspondence of Jefferson'; Rousseau's 'Social Contract,' translated by Rose M. Harrington, and edited by Prof. Edward L. Walter of the University of Michigan; 'Comparative Administrative Law,' embracing the national and local law of the United States, England, France, and Germany, by Prof. F. J. Goodenow of Columbia College; 'The Pottery and Porcelain of the United States,' an historical sketch by Edwin A. Barber, with more than 200 illustrations; the Marquis de Nadaillac's 'Manners and Monuments of Prehistoric Peoples' and 'Prehistoric America,' both illustrated, and both translated by Nancy Bell, and the latter edited by William H. Dall; 'The Jews of Angevin England,' inedited documents, collected and translated by Joseph Jacobs; 'Rambles in Historic Lands' (England and the Continent), by Peter J. Hamilton; 'Poems of Nature and Lôve,' by Madison Cawein; 'The Legend of the White Canoe,' by William Trumbull, with designs by F. V. Dumond; 'Parables from Nature,' by Mrs. Alfred Gatty, in two volumes, with illustrations by Paul de Longpré; 'Chinese Nights' Entertainments,' by Adele M. Fielde, with Chinese illustrations; and *éditions de luxe* of Julia Kavanagh's 'Woman in France during the 18th Century,' Frances Elliot's 'Old Court Life in France,' and 'Knickerbocker's History of New York'—the last uniform in size with the Granada and Alhambra editions of the past two years.

Macmillan & Co. announce Irving's 'Rip Van Winkle' and 'Legend of Sleepy Hollow,' with fifty-four full-page plates by George H. Boughton; Miss Mitford's 'Our Village,' illustrated by Hugh Thomson, and issued after the manner of Mrs. Gaskell's 'Cranford'; 'The United States: An Historical Sketch,' by Prof. Goldwin Smith; 'Chronological Outlines of American Literature,' by Selden L. Whitcomb; a translation of Prof. Friedrich von Wieser's work on 'Natural Value'; and a 'Dictionary of Birds,' by Alfred Newton, assisted by Hans Gadow.

D. Appleton & Co. will publish immediately, with many illustrations, 'Campfires of a Naturalist,' by Clarence E. Edwards.

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Several important works on Dante are just now in preparation in England. Mr. Paget Toynbee, a well-known scholar in mediæval literature, has been for some years engaged on a dictionary of the 'Divine Comedy.' He has now determined to divide his task, publishing first the part dealing with the proper names in all Dante's works. Dr. Edward Moore, distinguished as a text-critic, is preparing a one-volume edition of all Dante's writings, and Mr. A. J. Butler, whose commentary on the 'Divine Comedy' has been, on the whole, remarkably successful, has just completed a translation of Scartazzini's 'Dante-Handbuch.'

Ginn & Co., Boston, have become the proprietors of Blaisdell's series of Physiologies, hitherto published by Lee & Shepard.

F. T. Neely, Chicago, takes advantage of the expiration of the copyright of 'Uncle Tom's Cabin' to publish a new cheap edition, with a biography of Mrs. Stowe.

In like manner, David McKay, Philadelphia, profits by the lapse of copyright in Lowell's 'Conversations on Some of the Old Poets,' which, as being in a measure superseded by later and riper addresses, Mr. Lowell did not include in the Riverside Edition of his works. If any have thought this omission an unfinished window in Aladdin's tower, Mr. McKay has gratified them by imitating as far as possible the edition just mentioned; and though it falls a little short of its model, externally this unnumbered volume will take its place very well beside those issued by Houghton, Mifflin & Co. It is marked "Third Edition," and contains a somewhat perfunctory preface by Prof. Robert Ellis Thompson.

Something may perhaps be said in favor of the growing practice of reprinting, as if for class-room use, critical essays which are by no means out of print, and which are not of sufficient importance to be put in the library of any one but the advanced student of comparative or historical criticism. We fail to see, however, why it is necessary to annotate reprints of this sort as if every letter of the original were sacred in itself, and every chance allusion worth being dragged out into detailed mention. Such is the practice in Prof. Cook's 'An Answer to the Question, "What is Poetry?"' (Ginn & Co.), a reprint of a pretty essay of Leigh Hunt's, in which the editor repeatedly calls attention in a note to the fact that Hunt inadvertently left out *the* or wrote *he* for *it* and *or* for *nor* in a quotation, takes advantage of a mention of Ariosto's hippogriff to lug in Pegasus and Hesiod, and furnishes us with the exact reference for Homer's comparison of Apollo descending in his wrath to the coming of night.

The preface to William Renton's 'Outlines of English Literature' (Charles Scribner's Sons) sets the characteristic note of the book when it states that "the consideration given to an author individually is [here] subordinated to that given him as belonging to a type or school." Following this plan, the author sketches, with compactness, suggestiveness, and individuality, the chief eras in the history of English and American literature. In the hands of an experienced teacher or a mature student, this little treatise of 250 pages might give good results. Conventional teachers and dull pupils, however, it would certainly mystify or lead astray by such marvellous formulæ as (s+p)s + (v+h) T, which expresses the constitutional quality of Shakspere's artistic power; by similarly amazing geometrical diagrams, which group in a philosophic and comparative fashion the authors of a particular epoch; and by such sweeping generalizations as the remark "that the singular energy of the American character, if intensity and force of expression are to be considered as its correlative, is inadequately represented in the higher American literature, which tends rather to the measured, the finished, and the minute, than to the bold and impassioned—to the manner of Boston or New Orleans rather than of New York and Chicago."

A very welcome addition to English Goethe literature is a translation, by Mr. Bailey Saunders, of the "Sprüche in Prosa," those incomparable reflections on art, literature, science, and life which, having first appeared sporadically in the 'Wahlverwandschaften,' in 'Kunst und Alterthum,' in the 'Wanderjahre,' and in the 'Nachgelassene Werke,' were subsequently collected by Eckermann and for the first time critically edited by Von Loeper. The present translation, which appears under the title 'The Maxims and Reflections of Goethe' (Macmillan & Co.), is the first one attempted by an Englishman, and it is safe to say that it will remain the best. It is accompanied by an admirable introduction dealing most pertinently with the nature and use of maxims and the peculiar value of those of Goethe. We also learn by the way that Mr. Saunders was assisted in his work of selecting and translating by such men as Profs. Harnack and Huxley and Sir Frederick Leighton.

We wish the same praise could be given to another work, presumably intended to facilitate the study of Goethe, viz., 'Einführung in Goethe's Meisterwerke,' by Dr. W. Bernhardt (D. C. Heath & Co.); but we cannot help protesting against the sort of bookmaking exemplified by this production. To cut up the works of a writer in a way to make the limbs fly in every direction, and then to bury these dissected fragments in a mass of "copious biographical, literary, critical, and explanatory notes, a vocabulary of difficult words, and an introduction containing a life of the author" (all this is promised on the title-page), is a proceeding which must be characterized as an attempted murder not only of the author himself, but of the good sense and judgment of his readers as well.

A disciple and admirer of Émile Montégut, Auguste Sautour, has, in a small book of some hundred and twenty pages ('L'Oeuvre de Zola,' Paris: Fishbacher), given us a concise and, on the whole, satisfactory estimate of the value of Zola's work. Taking 'La Débâcle' as his starting point, he examines the whole of the Rougon-Macquart series from the point of view of science, philosophy, morals, humanity, æsthetics, literature, ideas, and usefulness. That he condemns it in each successive review as false to nature and truth, as harmful in its immediate and its eventual effects, is not to be wondered at, nor that he succeeds in establishing his position in nearly every case. But one may justly wish he had indicated some of the better features of Zola's work and given more prominence to the fact that there are passages in these books unequalled for force and magnificence. This reservation apart, the *brochure* is a useful contribution to the formation of an opinion on the head of the naturalistic school.

As a result of the particular activity in the last two or three years of French interest in Algeria, the number of good books about the country is rapidly increasing. One of the last of these, 'Kabylie du Jurjura,' by Jules Liorel (Paris: Leroux), while it does not pretend to reveal any new facts, is an excellent comprehensive study of a region and people much less well known than they deserve to be. It is still the common belief that the population of Algeria is made up principally, if not entirely, of Arabs, and even the Government long seemed to share this delusion. The French are now beginning to recognize that for the future of the colony the Arabs are a far less important and hopeful element than the Berbers, chief among whom the Kabyles are attracting increased attention (see, for instance, the Vicomte de Caix de Saint-Aymour's 'Arabes et Kabyles,' published year before last). They are descended from the earliest inhabitants of North Africa, intermixed with fugitives from every new invasion. They were never thoroughly subdued by the Romans or any one else before 1857; and even then it was long after the rest of the land had submitted, and twenty-seven years later than the capture of Algiers, not seventy miles away. M. Liorel's book is full of curious and valuable information, though he will find few readers for his list of villages, which takes up some sixty-five pages. Especially interesting is his example of a "Kanoun," or code of village laws. The short preface by M. Émile Masqueray is better worth reading than advertisements of this kind usually are.

Prof. D'Ancona, the first two instalments of whose excellent 'Manuale della Letteratura Italiana' we noticed not long ago, has now published the second part of the first volume, covering the period from Petrarch to the end of the fourteenth century. Petrarch and Boccaccio are, of course, the principal figures, but they are not given undue prominence over a host of minor writers, many of whom, we think, appear for the first time in a work of this kind.

Dr. Angelo Solerti has extracted from his critical edition of the minor poetical works of Tasso, published by Zanichelli, his Bibliography of the same, thus completing his guide to the entire work of Tasso in prose and in verse.

The Pope has awarded a gold medal to Prof. W. M. Ramsay of Aberdeen University, well known for his explorations in Asia Minor, for his recently published work on 'The Church in the Roman Empire before A. D. 170.' This distinction, which is not only signal but curious, considering that Prof. Ramsay is presumably a Presbyterian, is bestowed, no doubt, because of his vigorous and convincing advocacy, among other things, of the Apostle Peter's life and martyrdom at Rome.

The Nestorian tablet which was discovered in 1625 in a wall outside of the city of Singan Fu in northwestern China, has been visited recently by a traveller who reports its serious mutilation. The stone, which is of coarse marble, was erected in 781 A. D. as a monument to the labors of the Nestorian Christians. The inscription is partly in Syrian characters, and eulogizes the propagation of Christianity in China, and is, according to Dr. Williams, "the most ancient Christian inscription yet found in Asia." A few years ago, the Chinese Government, on account of foreign representations on the subject, caused a roof to be built over the tablet in order to protect it from the effects of exposure to the weather. This roof has, however, been broken down and "several of the characters have been effaced, and there are other signs of malicious hands." At a meeting held last month in London, the Archbishop of Canterbury announced that the well-known traveller Mrs. Bishop (Miss Isabella Bird) was about to set out on another journey, one of the objects of which was to see this stone and to secure an accurate representation of it and the inscription. To this end she was receiving instruction in photography and would take cameras with her.

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—Prof. Payne of Northfield, Minnesota, proposes the publication of a periodical devoted exclusively to popular astronomy, and issued monthly. The reading matter will be expressly prepared for, and adapted to, the wants of amateurs, teachers, students of astronomy, and popular readers; it will be plainly worded, untechnical in language, and fully illustrated, at the subscription price of $2.50 annually. There is in this country a large number of amateurs who have the desire and the time to undertake useful astronomical work, if only they knew what to do and how to do it. Co-operation in method and work ought to be mutually helpful under proper guidance. One purpose of this new periodical will be to point out useful elemental lines of work for small telescopes, the field-glass, opera-glass, naked-eye observation, and suitable methods of mapping subjects adapted to that kind of illustration. Tables of current celestial phenomena, with full and particular descriptions of the face of the sky, will appear from time to time, and suggestions will be made to secure effective work. Students and popular readers constitute other classes who are interested in astronomy, and who might be aided in plans for self-instruction—an idea which has never been worked out in any periodical, although perfectly feasible. A few of those eminent in astronomy to-day have gained their renown chiefly in this way. For the publication of this new periodical it is believed that the astronomers of Carleton College enjoy superior advantages.

—'The Babylonian Expedition of the University of Pennsylvania, Series A: Cuneiform Texts, edited by H. V. Hilprecht,' has recently appeared as a reprint from the Transactions of the American Philosophical Society, N. S. xviii., No. 1. There are fifty pages of text and fifty pages of plates. Thirty-five of the plates are photographic reproductions of autographic copies of Babylonian inscriptions found on door sockets, brick stamps, vases, lapis-lazuli discs, stone and clay tablets and cylinders, etc. Most of the inscriptions belong to periods but little known, and some of them come from kings not known heretofore at all. Fifteen of the plates contain photographs direct from the objects. The new material of this publication will be welcomed by all Assyriologists, while the beauty and accuracy of the copies made by the editor add greatly to the value of the work. It is estimated that the series will contain eight or ten volumes. These remains come for the most part from the temple of Bel at Niffer, one of the oldest seats of Babylonian culture, whence they were dug by Dr. J. P. Peters in 1889-90. A history by Dr. Peters of his expedition, with diagrams of his diggings, ought not to be much longer delayed. The specialist gains from the texts just published some idea of the success of the party, but there is a large reading public now which feels an interest in all such work, and for it, as well as for specialists, an account of the expedition should be published.

—Since Miss Fawcett, in 1890, outranked the senior-wrangler, both believers and sceptics in the mathematical normalcy of the female mind have scanned with interest the examination lists of the Cambridge Mathematical Tripos. This year, of the ten women who passed this examination, two are wranglers, and one (Miss Johnston of Newnham) stands between five and six on the list; the non-wranglers, with two exceptions, hold rank with the senior optimes. Such successes are no longer exceptional, nor are they confined to any special line of study. The two comparatively small women's colleges of Cambridge have this year won twelve first classes in the various triposes; and in the mediæval and modern-languages tripos and in the moral-science tripos *only* women appear in the first class. This term three of the Oxford women students took the final examination in natural science. Miss Shorrock of Somerville Hall obtained a first-class in chemistry, Miss Sharp of Lady Margaret Hall a third, and Miss Evelyn Berkley from Lady Margaret, who is the first woman to try the final honor School of Physics, took an excellent second-class. Our correspondent comments on Miss Berkley's good standing, as she had not been able to take previously a mathematical honor examination, as men generally do. At Oxford the past term has in several ways brought additional recognition of the women students. To recapitulate: three more honor examinations have been opened to them—theology, Oriental languages, and the examination for the degree of Doctor of Music; the University has decided to print officially the successful women's names in all class lists, with the name of the college to which each belongs; the Council has offered a room in the Clarendon Building as an office for the Association for the Education of Women in Oxford, and has further recognized this Association by appointing a University delegate on its committee; the University has, furthermore, consented to appoint a delegate to sit on the council of Somerville Hall, and will doubtless extend similar official countenance to Lady Margaret and St. Hugh's, when these bodies solicit it. Both in Great Britain and in the United States 1893 seems destined to serve as one of the mile-stones in the progress of higher education for women.

—"There is no gainsaying," writes a correspondent, "that whatever beauty London may boast is mainly the result of chance—the chance of atmosphere and light, of mist and fog and smoke. As a rule, the conscious effort to ornament its streets has, in modern times, resulted in failure—in buildings that are a discredit to the architect and statues that are a dishonor to the sculptor. By contrast, the unveiling of Mr. Gilbert's fountain, raised as a memorial to the late Lord Shaftesbury, is an event of no little artistic importance to London. The fountain stands in Piccadilly Circus, a site worthy of a fine monument. Mr. Gilbert is a sculptor of rare distinction, who, it was known, could not, if he would, have produced such an abortion as those which, for a hundred years and more, a well-meaning people have been offering to their heroes. Now that the fountain has been unveiled, the all but universal verdict is that it is an honor, not merely to Lord Shaftesbury, but to Mr. Gilbert, who, by it, has still further strengthened his reputation. It is distinguished by all those characteristics which hitherto have delighted in his work. It is vigorous and dignified in design as a whole; the detail is exquisite, but never too ornate in its marvellous elaboration; the different metals introduced are used in the pictorial rather than the sculpturesque spirit, but always with admirable result. Indeed, the chief charm of the fountain is, that, while the detail, especially in a beautiful arrangement of dolphins and water-babies running around one of the three basins, bears the minutest inspection and study, the fountain, as a whole, impresses by its sobriety and restraint. There are none of the swirling draperies and flying figures of the Bernini School, no *rococo* excesses. It is almost stern in its simplicity of outline, and, consequently, it is in perfect harmony with London gloom and melancholy. Without question, though its jewel-like finish may be criticised, it is one of the modern world's finest pieces of street sculpture. There is hope for the future loveliness of London if its decoration henceforth be intrusted to its Gilberts, instead of the Boehms, who heretofore have been first in favor."

—Dr. Max Kaluza's observation that the Middle English translation of the 'Roman de la Rose' falls into three fragments, of which the first contains little or nothing that contravenes Chaucer's rules of language and versification, was first made public in the *Academy* for July 5, 1890. He has recently published the last results of his studies on this subject in a book of some two hundred and fifty pages, under the title of 'Chaucer und der Rosenroman' (Berlin: Felber). Dr. Kaluza's book has been received very favorably in Germany and in England, and the conclusions at which he has arrived seem in a fair way to meet with wide acceptance among scholars. These conclusions are, in brief, that lines 1–1705 and 5811–7692 were really written by Chaucer, and comprise the whole of his translation, but that lines 1706–5810 are the work of an imitator. This thesis Dr. Kaluza supports by an elaborate argument from metre, vocabulary, and style, with a collection of parallel passages covering almost a hundred pages of fine print. By these parallel passages he supposes that he has proved a similarity so close between Chaucer's phraseology and the phraseology of the first and third fragments of the translation that it is impossible longer to deny the Chaucerian authorship of these parts of the English 'Romaunt.'

—Though this collection of parallels is a valuable contribution to our knowledge of Middle English phraseology, it is impossible to accept it as evidence in the sense intended by its compiler. German scholars are very prone to yield to the seductions of this parallel-passage argument; but never, perhaps, has so astonishing a collection been made as this of Dr. Kaluza's. In many instances the resemblance confines itself to one or two words, and those among the commonest in the language. Thus, the fact that Chaucer and the translator both use the phrase "to go to bed" seems to Kaluza of sufficient importance to deserve a note, and there are many other illustrations of quite as trivial a character. A large number of parallels, again, simply show that the translator followed his original very closely, and that some word that he found there was also well known to Chaucer and used by him whenever he chose. What else is to be inferred, for example, from the fact that the translator uses the word "engender" where the French has the same word, and that Chaucer uses engender now and then, when he sees occasion, as everybody else did and does? Dr. Kaluza's belief that Chaucer's translation of the 'Roman de la Rose' was confined to the parts included in the first and third fragments of the extant English version, is, besides, in flat contradiction to the evidence that may reasonably be extracted from the prologue to the 'Legend of Good Women.' His theoretical considerations about the way in which the translation reached its present form are curiously at variance with probability and with each other. He even makes the suggestion that a part of the version was prepared by Chaucer "for his private use." What private use a poet who was perfectly acquainted with French should have for an English translation

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of a French poem which was one of his favorite pieces of reading, is a question that Dr. Kaluza would find some difficulty in answering. As a whole, this investigation must be regarded as a valuable contribution to Chaucerian literature, but as very far from settling the question who wrote the extant English version of the 'Roman de la Rose.'

—A complete edition of Martin Luther's sacred and secular poems with notes has been issued as a "Festgabe" on the occasion of the restoration and reconsecration of the Schlosskirche at Wittenberg. The couplet,

> "Wer nicht liebt Wein, Weib und Gesang,
> Der bleibt ein Narr sein Leben lang,"

so often quoted and so generally ascribed to the Reformer, is not contained in this collection, and indeed there is not the slightest evidence that he ever wrote it. It is simply the translation of a verse current in Italy long before his time:

> "Chi non ama il vino, la donna e il canto,
> Un pazzo egli sarà e mai un santo."

It was first printed in the *Wandsbecker Bote* in 1775 as follows:

> "Dir wünsch' ich Wein und Mädchenkuss,
> Und deinem Klepper Pegasus
> Die Krippe stets voll Futter!
> Wer nicht liebt Wein, Weib und Gesang,
> Der bleibt ein Narr sein Leben lang,
> Sagt Doctor Martin Luther."

This epigram was written by Johann Heinrich Voss and reprinted by him in the Hamburg *Musenalmanach* in 1777; it was accepted by Herder as Luther's in the first volume of his 'Volkslieder,' published in 1778, and passed into Methfessel's 'Allgemeines Kommers- und Liederbuch' in 1818. Voss never stated on what authority he attributed the couplet to Luther, and perhaps it was merely a facetious rhyming of the sentiment expressed in Luther's Table Talk: "Wie wollt ihr jetzt anders einen Deutschen vorthun denn ebrietate, praesertim talem qui diligit musicam et mulieres?" In some humorous verses written in the Palatine dialect, the Old-Bavarian poet, Franz von Kobell, extols the wisdom of Luther's saying, and as a good Catholic only regrets that a man of this genuine stamp should have been such a "horrid Lutheran":

> "Drum hot der alte Martin Recht,
> Sei Spruch is schö un klar,
> Un's is nor schad, dass halt der Mann
> Erschrecklich luthrisch war."

KELTIE'S PARTITION OF AFRICA.

The Partition of Africa. By J. Scott Keltie. London: Edward Stanford. 1893.

FEW people know precisely in what way Africa has been divided between different European Powers, and still fewer have more than the haziest notion as to how this division took place. And yet the opening up of the Dark Continent and its partition among civilized nations constitute an event of tremendous importance, whose full consequences it is impossible to foresee. So quickly has this been accomplished that it has been very difficult to get a connected idea of what has happened, and why and how it has happened. At the present time, therefore, when there seems to be a lull in the scramble, which is by no means over yet, we are especially grateful for a work that gives us in the smallest possible compass, while hardly omitting an important detail, a clear, dispassionate account of this extraordinary phenomenon. Mr. Keltie's book is not only most timely, but is good enough to be of value under any circumstances. All that he says is so much to the point that it would take a volume as large as his own to analyze and discuss it properly. After a few introductory chapters on the earlier history, he describes the furious rush of the last ten years, and ends with an excellent short study on the worth of what has been acquired. Mr. Keltie's name on a title-page is a guarantee for accuracy, though we wish to call attention to two small slips. It is probably a typographical error which makes him say (p. 2) that there are "some 130,000,000 of people of European origin or descent" on the American Continent; and momentary forgetfulness when (p. 260), speaking of the chiefs "Ahmadu" and "Samory," he gives "Samadu" as the alternative name of the former instead of the latter.

In reading a discussion of such recent political events, each of us can disagree with this, that, or the other of the author's conclusions, according to our own opinions. All must do justice, however, to the great fairness and calmness of his views, even if we find in him a natural tendency to rejoice whenever England has been quicker than a rival in grabbing something. He evidently belongs to those who believe that the larger the Queen's empire, the better, not only for it, but for the rest of the world; yet there is a refreshing absence of cant or declamation in what he writes. Although he likes to mention cases where native rulers, through some friendly consul or mere traveller, have spontaneously (?) sought British protection, which has been refused by a self-denying Government, he does not mind telling us that "many similar so-called 'treaties' have been signed by African chiefs in favor of various Powers. It is doubtful whether, as a rule, these chiefs have any idea whatever of the significance of what they are doing."

Among the things left unsaid, two are curious and rather significant. In the account of the Anglo-Portuguese dispute, there is not a word to remind us that a solution was reached by the simple method of an ultimatum on the part of the stronger Power. In the appeal for the retention of Egypt, with which the book comes to a close, we miss any reference to the main difficulty in the way of the British, viz., their solemn and repeated promises not to make their occupation permanent.

The most important steps in the partition of Africa were the Berlin Conference (1885) and the treaties of Great Britain with Germany, France, and Portugal (1890 and 1891). Plenty of other treaties of demarcation were concluded at about the same time, and plenty more will be in the future, but none of quite the interest of these. Germany "stole a march" on England several times in annexing vacant territories; but the latter, by playing on German pride and patriotism about Heligoland, got altogether the best of it in the final arrangement. This is easy to explain: in one case Lord Granville was matched against Bismarck, in the other it was Salisbury versus Caprivi and his master. The French, on the whole, fared well in their agreement—better, indeed, than they have ever been willing to admit. To be sure, their dream of completely owning the Niger vanished for ever, and much of what they got was Sahara—what Lord Salisbury called "very light soil"; but the dream was hopeless by that time, and in another year or two the English were far more likely to get above Say, the present dividing point on the river, than they themselves were to get below it. Besides, the recognition of their protectorate over Madagascar greatly outweighed any interests they abandoned in Zanzibar.

In dealing with the controversy between Great Britain and Portugal, Mr. Keltie, like other English writers, takes great pains to show on what flimsy foundations Portuguese pretensions were based. So they were, and it is also perfectly true that the English govern their possessions much better than the Portuguese do, and it is better for civilization that the former have acquired Nyassa, Zambezi, and Matabeleland. Still, the Portuguese had hard measure dealt them. As claims in Africa go, theirs were rather superior to the average, and much older, while it is hard to see that the British had any claim at all (except their "interests") to most of the regions in dispute. In other words, here was valuable property which they wanted, and took in a somewhat brutal manner, utterly scorning the appeal of Portugal for arbitration. However, we need not quarrel with an author who says of England, with pleasing frankness, that "at the worst she can only be accused of obeying the law of the universe, 'Might is right.'"

'The Partition of Africa' would be impossible to follow or understand without maps. Fortunately, those in the work are numerous and satisfactory, the only exception being that of population, which ought to have been colored. The most important is that of the political divisions; and it is worth our while to examine it closely, because it shows the grand result of the events narrated in the text, and also because it is not easy to find two good political maps of Africa that agree. This one differs in several respects even from the one in Mr. Keltie's own 'Statesman's Year-Book' for 1892. South of the equator, almost all national boundaries have been clearly fixed by treaty. The only important question still unsettled is the limits, on the upper Zambezi, of the Barotse, a people in the British "sphere of influence," whose frontier Mr. Keltie has pushed, at the expense of the Portuguese, much further west than it is given on most maps. We may hear of trouble about this frontier some day. When he comes to East Africa, he is also very generous with his pink (color of British possessions), and capricious likewise, as there is no reason why, if he is going to include the region of the upper Nile and Bahr el-Ghazal, he should not add the rest of the former Egyptian Sudan. In point of fact, English influence does not as yet extend beyond Lake Albert. We think that the Belgians, who have now established themselves at Emin Pasha's old capital, Wadelai, will succeed in advancing the boundaries of the Congo Free State to Lakes Albert Edward and Albert and the Nile, although England has so far steadily opposed this, and may exact something in return for her final consent. If the French can push forward in time to Bahr el-Ghazal—and it is not improbable—they will pay but little heed to the article of the Anglo-German treaty that seems to hand it over to Great Britain; nor will they listen meekly, as the Italians did about Kassala, to the assertion that the guardian of Egypt cannot surrender any territories that once belonged to her protégé, no matter who holds them now. This would mean more trouble. Still, if a good deal is claimed in this quarter, we find, to our surprise, nothing in map or text about the coast strip below Morocco, between Cape Jub and Cape Nun, where there is a fortified British factory; it is colored as a possession in the 'Statesman's Year-Book.'

The English and Germans have been reluctant to recognize the rapid progress in Africa of the French. Their color, blue, is the one on Mr. Keltie's map whose limits are most open to question. In general, there is not enough of it, but with two exceptions. The oasis of Ghat is assigned to the French, though they do not always dare to claim it; and it is most astonishing to find an English map conceding to them

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the Hinterland of Dahomey, thereby connecting their colonies and separating those of England. As this is in contradiction with what is said on pages 284 and 286, it would seem to be accidental. On the other hand, French dominions are curtailed in several instances. Beginning near the equator, we notice that the treaty boundary between Cameroons and French Congo is carried more than a degree too far to the east. It really ends at the fifteenth meridian, beyond which it is not likely to be prolonged, as De Brazza has already turned it and penetrated further north. The effects of the treaties concluded by him, Mizon, and Maistre (the last named since this book was written) with various native States, up to and including Adamawa, yet remain to be seen.

On the Guinea Coast, the district between Cape Palmas and the San Pedro River is allotted to Liberia, not to France. The latter, which has already occupied it, will probably keep it, in spite of the remonstrances of the United States. German maps, which formerly gave it to Liberia, have begun to realize this. In the interior, Massina, Aribanda, and Mossi should not be left white: they are French, or rather will be, for, like many other parts of the map, they represent future, not present, European possessions. The frontier line, running from Say on the Niger to Barrua on Lake Chad, is still uncertain, and likely for a while to remain so; but since the expedition of Lieut. Monteil, it looks as if it would be more to the south than it is here given (compare p. 285). On the northwest, the region called "Spanish Protectorate" represents what Spain claims, though hardly what she will get. On the other side of Africa, at the entrance to the Red Sea, we find the colony of Obock reduced to its smallest possible dimensions; and finally, for some unknown reason, Madagascar, instead of being blue, has only a blue border. It is true that the hold of the French on the island is at present very slight, but it is at least as good as that of Italy on Abyssinia; and they are not going to let go, as the Italians may have to do for lack of money.

Altogether, it is very evident that the partition of Africa is not yet definite or complete. When it is, let us hope for a new edition of Mr. Keltie's work with the end of the story which he has told so well.

RECENT LAW BOOKS.

Mr. Charles F. Beach, jr., in his two large volumes of 'Commentaries on the Law of Public Corporations' (Indianapolis: Bowen-Merrill Company), has sought to "cover the entire field of public-company law in all its details, using the term 'public companies' in its widest modern sense." The book is designed to supplement the author's earlier 'Private Corporations,' making with it "a complete treatise . . . on company law in all its phases, from the Federal Government at the one extreme . . . to the most insignificant joint-stock association" at the other. This is an extensive subject, the very breadth of which seems to have led the author at times farther than was altogether profitable into the peculiarities of local law. It may be surmised that he would have come nearer to complete success in his difficult undertaking if he had not aimed so much at quantity in book-making as he appears to have done in recent years. He certainly writes useful books; but their merit, in the present instance at least, lies rather in the elaborate collection of authorities than in any original or historical exposition of the law, or careful criticism of the cases. In these points the volumes before us suffer as much by comparison with Judge Dillon's excellent book on 'Municipal Corporations' as did the author's 'Private Corporations' with the work of Mr. Morawetz.

Mr. Bigelow's new edition of 'Jarman on Wills' (Fifth Am. ed.; Boston: Little, Brown & Co.), published simultaneously with the fifth English edition, by L. G. Gordon Robbins, brings down to the present time one of those treatises, only too rare nowadays, which are to be judged by the highest standard of what a law book should be. The English editor, whose work appears to be excellently done, has added so much to the book that Mr. Bigelow has seen fit to strike out the brackets in the text which have heretofore distinguished the original from its later accretions. Among other things is a just criticism of the late case of Whitby vs. Mitchell (44 Ch. D. 85), containing many observations already made by Prof. Gray in his admirable book on the 'Rule against Perpetuities,' to which Mr. Bigelow makes proper reference in his notes. These notes, and the not infrequent monographs which accompany them, are so good that we can only wish they were twice as many, and not concealed in microscopic type.

The second edition of 'Sheldon on Subrogation' (Boston Book Co.) is a thorough revision of a useful book. In the preface to the first edition the author observed that it was his aim "to state the doctrines which have been laid down by the courts in applying the law of subrogation, without going, beyond the most limited extent, outside of the adjudications of this country and of England," and he added: "Regarding it as the distinguishing feature of our system of law that it is established by judicial decisions *a posteriori*, and not deduced from *a priori* reasonings, I have made no attempt to go further than the courts have gone." Such limitations upon the scope of the book (and it has not been changed in the new edition) have largely prevented the scientific and historical treatment which would have been of peculiar value in a subject so difficult, and so extensively derived from the civil law, as that of subrogation.

The subject of Mr. Henry F. Buswell's 'Civil Liability for Personal Injuries arising out of Negligence' (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.) is open to the criticism of being either too narrow or too broad—too narrow for a comprehensive treatment of the law of negligence as a whole; too broad for a studious monograph on some one of its subdivisions. The practical justification of the subject is probably to be found in the large and increasing number of actions, in a sense a class by themselves, against corporations and others for personal injuries. But surely the needs of the practitioner in this class of cases will not be fully satisfied without some treatment of so important a head as the measure of damages. Mr. Buswell's work, within his field, seems in the main to be well and carefully done—witness his interesting discussion of the Employers' Liability Act. But it is not a little surprising to hear him refer to the antiquated and indefensible doctrine which imputed to the passenger in a vehicle the negligence of his driver, overruled more than six years ago in The Bernina (12 Prob. D. 58), as the "English rule."

'Death by Wrongful Act' (St. Paul: West Publishing Co.) is a more promising title, suggesting a branch of the subject last mentioned which might well repay careful investigation. We regret that we cannot say as much for Mr. F. B. Tiffany's treatment as for his choice of a subject. He has made a good collection of modern facts—statutes and decisions—but has thrown no great light on their antecedent causes or on the inferences to which they lead. Indeed, the discussion of so many different statutes in so small a compass could not well permit the precise examination of each so necessary to its right understanding. The practising lawyer will need to supplement this book by some more detailed commentary on the law of his own State. It should be observed that both this and the foregoing treatise give evidence of "padding" by their publishers.

'Black on Tax Titles' (West Publishing Co.) is the second edition of a very good book. Its method might to advantage be more historical, and the treatment of the general subject of taxation, especially on its constitutional side, is necessarily slight. But it has the free style and the clear and orderly arrangement of the author's other works. Especially to be commended is the handling of the local statutes, the number and variety of which must have made their proper subordination to the general principles peculiarly difficult.

A FRENCHWOMAN.

La Comtesse de Chambrun: Ses Poésies. Paris: Calmann Lévy. 1893.

This is one of those books in which the preliminary memoir has an interest far beyond that belonging to the compositions which it precedes. It will be found especially useful to such as are afflicted with a chronic social distrust of our fellow-republicans across the Atlantic, and can see nothing in France except frivolity and corruption. Here we find, on the other hand, in the highest social circles of that country, and amid vast wealth, the record of lives that are singularly pure and high-minded; a glimpse of something quite outside the range of even the more favored class of ordinary tourists; a group of righteous souls who might save even Paris. We here find Frenchmen and Frenchwomen who enjoy beautiful and stainless domestic relations, surrounded by simple and refined social pleasures, and who show a constant devotion to public and private duty—devotion such as could not have been surpassed had they been brought up on Wordsworth's "Ode on Immortality" and under the shadow of Bunker Hill Monument.

Marie Jeanne Godard-Demarest, Comtesse de Chambrun, was born at Baccarat, the second daughter of the well-known glass-manufacturer of that place. She was educated as a Catholic, although her nonagenarian Béarnese grandmother was a stanch Protestant. In winters spent in Paris supplementing her mother's instruction, she cultivated music, both vocal and instrumental, with other arts of expression, enjoying to the full the privilege of Delsarte as a teacher. Not strictly beautiful, but attractive, gracious, and graceful, she was married at the age of twenty-six to Viscount Adelbert de Chambrun, relative of the Marquis of that name who has lately contributed to *Scribner's Magazine* his interesting reminiscences of Lincoln and Sumner. This marriage was brought about, as is not unusual in France, by the father-confessor of both contracting parties, and a friend writes: "Jeanne not only received at the hands of the Abbé de Sénac the spiritual guidance she craved, but also unhoped-for earthly felicity." In fact, though a childless union, it proved to be an exceptionally happy one: flawless, indeed, except for the nervous suffering to which the Countess was constitutionally liable. After her mother's death she writes in her journal: "Three months to-morrow! Three

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eternities of grief in three distinct phases, each with its own characteristic torture—the bewildered despair of the first shock, my despair all alone, and then the same despair shared with my husband in which I feel all the harm my grief does him, and my sorrow thus redoubled becomes even more intolerable."

Six years the senior of his wife, a devout Catholic, though descended like her from Protestant ancestors, Joseph Dominique Adelbert Pineton, Vicomte de Chambrun, devoted himself from his youth to active political life as well as to philosophical studies. Three times elected Deputy and once Senator, he has always voted with the Extreme Right in the Corps Législatif and Palais du Luxembourg. Austere and tender, he writes constantly helpful letters to his school-boy brother, not only saying, "Prie et travaille," but setting him the example. It is a characteristic trait that during their honeymoon the "Quis mihi det ut moriar?" of the Apostle Paul was constantly on his lips—"not very gay for a bride," Jeanne writes later; and in the poem called "Une branche de jacinthe rose" there is a pretty allusion to an enforced renunciation, in those early days of their married life, of some promised festivity, where the husband is made to say that he would gladly sacrifice all to her, but that other duties also claim him:

"Je sacrifierais tout à ma jeune captive,
Mais je me dois au bien, à la science, à l'art."

They were always unaffectedly proud of each other, and she was associated with him in every phase of his political life. While Prefect of the Jura he never once left his post during the prevalence of the cholera, and was at last struck down by the disease himself. His wife stayed by his side, encouraged to do so by letters from her heroic mother.

During the Franco-Prussian war M. de Chambrun went to the Lozère at the request of M. Guizot, but he insisted on his wife's remaining at Pau, where an ambulance was established under the auspices of "Les Petites Sœurs des Pauvres." After the battles of the Loire, wounded Bavarian soldiers were sent there, and Mme. de Chambrun tended them zealously, though many had the varioloid. There, when the epidemic was at its height, she made the acquaintance of a beautiful girl of German origin, who was fearlessly devoting herself to her suffering countrymen. Full of admiration for her grace and heroism, the Countess Jeanne forced on her acceptance a necklace of opals and diamonds, a present from her own mother. "Since it was not in my power," she said, "to have her decorated, I gave her the most beautiful thing I possessed.' She did more—they became inseparable, and the young girl remained with her as a companion as long as the Countess lived.

After the war, M. de Chambrun was a candidate for the place of Senator, and instead of making the customary profession of faith he sent this card to his constituents: "Comte de Chambrun, député en 1857, en 1863, en 1869. Sénateur en 1876 si vous voulez." He was elected. On this or some previous election, a local poet sang: "We gave our votes to the Count and our hearts to the Countess." In all sorts of ways, in fact, they were helpful reciprocally. The wife's ardor and excessive sensibility were regulated and checked by the calm philosophy and methodical habits of her husband. During a long visit to Rome in 1872, Mme. de Chambrun writes to the curé of Lons: "I am in a place where the days are all too short for the marvels, religious, historical, and artistic, by which we are surrounded. They inspire my husband with great, profound thoughts which he imparts to me sometimes, and which help me to appreciate the interest and grandeur of the places we visit." At this time, at the "Villa Médicis," M. Hébert was painting the portrait given in the frontispiece. It represents the Countess Jeanne, her cheek resting on her hand, and with a sweet, far-away look in her eyes. "Her lips are slightly parted by a smile, and she seems lost in contemplation of the ideal." Her husband called it "The Muse," and the name has clung to the picture.

At the time of the burning of the theatre at Nice, Gounod writes to Mme. de Chambrun: "In making you acquainted with grief God has enabled you to console all who sorrow," and her kindly help and heartfelt sympathy were always forthcoming in time of trouble for all sorts and conditions of men. We read in a letter sent to Baccarat at the time of the annual festival: "Greet for me all my townspeople and brethren, workmen and employers, and say how sorry I am to be kept away from them at this time." In the Lozère her relations seem to have been rather more feudal. She was temporarily in the Pyrenees for her health a long time after they had left that department, when she learned that 3,000 pilgrims from Lozère were on their way to the shrine at Lourdes. Supplying herself with 3,000 medals to distribute, she went to meet them, and the pilgrims almost lost sight of the object of their visit in their joy at seeing their benefactress and being remembered by her. The humble were especially dear to her, and at one time she denied herself the pleasure of returning to Paris, where her husband was impatiently awaiting her coming; and remained in Baccarat watching over the dying-bed of her old nurse, to whom she was a great consolation.

It was in this power of comforting, of giving something of herself with her alms and benefactions, that she reaped the harvest of her own pain, for it can hardly be said of her that she "taught in song" what she had "learned in suffering." This wind-harp of a woman breathes strains that are sweet and sad, but her poems want consistency and are more plaintive than profound. Then she never quite mastered the difficult art of French versification. Her ready sympathy and faculty of assimilation should have made her a good translator. Among the fragments of verse we find these lines, evidently translated from the "Wi' lightsome heart I pu'd a rose":

"D'un cœur léger je cueillis une rose
Trop attirante en son arbre épineux;
Mon faux ami m'a pris la fleur éclose,
Et m'a laissé l'épine pour adieux."

The epigraph of these poems is simple and pretty:

"Ah! si mes vers avaient des ailes,
Ils tourbillonneraient vers vous,
Comme à nos toits les hirondelles
Quand revient un souffle plus doux.

"Ils vous murmureraient des choses
Qui vous feraient vibrer le cœur,
Dont jamais de vulgaires proses
N'auraient eu l'ardente saveur.

"Mais ces pauvres vers n'ont pas d'ailes;
Ils tomberont sur le chemin,
Oiselets aux plumes trop frêles,
Si vous ne leur tendez la main."

And M. Caro says of the poem entitled "Une Marche de Pierre," "I have just read these pretty, melancholy verses, and must say how graceful and charming they are. It is a surprise to find lines inspired by De Musset from such an austere pen." But the tone soon changes, reverts to sadness, and she dwells at last on the final refuge, on the great day of His coming. The verses on "La Roma Sdegnata" of M. Hébert have more vigor.

"Oui, je te foule aux pieds, Rome antique et chrétienne,
Je jette ta poussière aux quatre vents des cieux;
Ta gloire de martyre ou ta grandeur païenne,
Je réduis tout en poudre, et tes saints et tes dieux.

"Sur ton sol profané j'étends ma griffe avide,
J'écrase tes palais, j'arrache tes cyprès,
Et je m'installe en roi dans cette Rome vide;
Je suis maître du monde et m'appelle Progrès."

Of all Mme. de Chambrun has written, nothing, however, is so widely known as her "Passiflore":

I.

"Voici, sur mon déclin,
La fleur que j'ai choisie,
D'aucuns l'appelleront
Fleur de la passion,
Je la nomme fleur de la vie.

II.

"Qu'importe? c'est le même nom:
Elle a la couronne d'épines,
Et l'échelle qui mène au ciel,
Et l'éponge aux gouttes divines,
Tour à tour d'hysope et de miel.

III.

"Elle a le vert de l'espérance,
Elle a le violet du deuil:
C'est la joie et c'est la souffrance,
C'est le berceau c'est le cercueil!

IV.

"C'est donc, sue mon déclin,
La fleur qui j'ai choisie;
D'une teinte pareille au jour qui va pâlir,
Elle est l'image, l'image de la vie:
C'est le passé, c'est l'avenir!"

Dom Pedro, then Emperor of Brazil, translated this poem into Portuguese, and his daughter sent the author a copy printed by her boys on the little printing-press in the palace at Rio Janeiro. The French original was set to music by both Gounod and Ambroise Thomas, neither of whom was aware that the other had undertaken to do so; and the Countess Jeanne sang it herself to the dethroned sovereign and his family in her villa at Nice. There, and in their splendid hôtel, "Rue Monsieur," in Paris, the De Chambruns gave the choicest musical entertainments, both sacred and profane, with such artists as Patti, Nilsson, Krauss, and Materna for performers, accompanied by the orchestra of Colonne or Lamoureux. The sacred concerts took place in the chapel of the hôtel, a miniature copy of the Sainte Chapelle of Saint Louis. At one time they issued invitations to a course of lectures on the history of music, illustrated by these celebrities; and in 1880, when the Comte de Chambrun's sight was failing, he engaged the best lecturers to speak on the philosophical subjects in which he took such a deep interest. They came on regular days, as for a public course. A great admirer of Wagner, the Countess Jeanne never rested till she had converted her husband, who ended by surpassing her in enthusiasm, and they made together the annual pilgrimage to Bayreuth.

Inheriting from her father vast wealth, of which she made noble use, Mme. de Chambrun never seemed to attach any importance to what was factitious in herself or others; and, Legitimist that she was, it would seem that, even when dealing with royal personages, their woes were the best passport to her favor. Though frail and suffering, she led the life of a Sister of Charity at Pau, at Versailles, and at Paris after the Commune, and her deeds of mercy were numberless.

She had a strong love for the drama, and was fond of acting in her own private theatre, preferring the plays of Shakspere, De Musset, and Feuillet. Sometimes she wrote a "proverb" herself, and created the principal part. At the time of her death, which took place in Paris in the summer of 1891, after a few days' illness, her husband directed that the funeral rites should be of the simplest kind, and would not allow them to emblazon with armorial bearings the black draperies of the church or those at the porte-cochère of the hôtel. The pathetic, dirge-like lament written by him as he sat, blind and desolate, in his sick-room, while the bell of St. François Xavier near by was toll-

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ing for his wife's funeral, recalls the "He and She" of Sir Edwin Arnold. At the funeral services in the Montmartre Cemetery, M. Émile Ollivier said, in his eloquent farewell to the Countess Jeanne: "She was buoyed up with a great hope. God has welcomed her to a peace which passeth understanding."

The curtain falls. It has seemed almost indelicate, even like a breach of confidence, to call public attention to these intimate revelations of the wedded life of M. and Mme. de Chambrun, of which more can be read between the lines than appears on the printed page; but the book may do missionary work in more than one way.

Comparative Syntax of Greek and Latin. By Eustace Hamilton Miles, B.A. Part I. Cambridge: Macmillan & Bowes; New York: Macmillan. 1893.

THE study of syntax has for years been profoundly influenced by evolutionary methods, and nowadays he who studies syntax studies the laws of life, the laws of growth. The old logical apparatus has been discarded, and psychological instruments of precision have been introduced. The assemblage of facts goes on as it did of old, but with an exhaustiveness of which earlier schools did not dream. It is true that abundant illustration and acute observation are not of yesterday, and that many discoveries of recent days are old stories to the few who know the history of grammatical research, and who recognize traditions and reminiscences in many of the theories that are put forth by minuscule scholars as personal contributions to the advance of science. But, for all that, there is no questioning the fruitfulness of modern methods, the value of modern results. The lucubrations of a great scholar like Gottfried Hermann are almost incredible to our generation. On one page Latin is tortured to express subtle differences of Greek syntax that often exist only in the imagination of the interpreter; on the next a theory is supported by examples drawn from the most diverse spheres of Greek literature. Even Cobet had no true historical sense. His orthodoxy brooked no variations. All that was not Attic was of evil, and in failing to understand pathology he failed to understand physiology.

The historical study of syntax has led to the comparative study of syntax, the historic to the prehistoric. We go back to the parent speech, to the arborescent forms of the original stock, each with its several office. We watch the fusion here, the differentiation there. We see three case functions covered by one case form, and abandon our old abstractions of genitive, dative, and ablative; and yet we are haunted by the thought that to the men who used the language there must have been unity where we see diversity. We interrogate our own consciousness as to our own language, in which also form and function are at variance, and try to reconstruct by sympathy the scheme of the popular grammar. It is a fascinating study, a subtle study. It is a study to which no one scholar is equal. The student of form must be content to learn from the student of function, and vice versa. Through myriads of examples, through the shifting phases of periods, dialects, departments, authors, the patient explorer must feel his way, assembling his facts critically as well as exhaustively, tracing organic growth here and disturbing (not to say "false") analogy there, and the end not a dogmatic certainty, but a modest provisional hypothesis. Such is the syntactical study of the present day. It is yet in its beginning: hosts of problems remain to be solved, and there is room enough for any number of new workers.

Now, into this quiet company of students comes Mr. Eustace Hamilton Miles, B.A., scholar of King's College, Cambridge—"comes with a whoop, comes with a call, comes with a good will," in the approved fashion of the nursery rhyme. Prof. Brugmann "had most kindly offered" him "the advice" "to devote" himself "to thoroughly sifting and working out some small detail"; but Mr. Miles is evidently afraid lest the study of detail might interfere with the full and free exercise of his robust common sense, and finds it much more "funny and nice," if one may use his own choice language, to bully-rag Prof. Brugmann than to follow his wise counsel. "To dote upon a thousand items," he says "(sometimes to the exclusion of an exceedingly practical and undeniable principle of common sense), characterizes very much of German work, much of American work, and not a little of English work"; and it is in the interest of practical and undeniable principles of common sense that this comparative syntax has been written. It is impossible to take Mr. Miles seriously, but it is equally impossible to be angry with him. His light-heartedness reminds one of Brer Rabbit and his way of going to work; of the chapters in which Rabelais describes the adolescence of Gargantua. Like the youthful Gargantua, he runs after butterflies, returns to his muttons, puts the cart before the horse, catches larks when the sky falls, looks a gift-horse in the mouth, falls between two stools, *trop embrasse et mal étrei t*, and all the rest. A more determined young fellow to break down an open door, a more zealous schoolmaster in teaching dolphins how to swim, is hardly to be found in the limbo of grammatical infants. His "main contention," in black-faced type, is "that our evidence does not often justify that dogmatism with which prehistoric forms or constructions have hitherto been mapped out as certainties, and that many views hitherto stated and accepted as certainties still remain to be proved to be certainties." This main contention will hardly seem to be a desperate novelty to any one who is acquainted with the tendency of recent research, which is more and more cautious, more and more reserved, more and more averse to large conclusions, more and more prone to keep within the sphere of phonetic sequence and homely analogy.

The armor in which this *enfonceur de portes ouvertes* is clad consists chiefly of native resolution. "This is not a learned work," he acknowledges. "My knowledge of Sanskrit is small." And yet, strong in his common sense and uncommon assurance, he proceeds to treat Brugmann and Delbrück very much as Brer Rabbit treated the tar baby. Of the history of the department he knows nothing, and wastes both praise and blame on the wrong persons. His tumultuous list of authorities is of a piece with the tumultuousness of the book. In brief, Mr. Miles has been at a great feast of grammars and stolen the scraps, and now proceeds to pelt the grammarians with what he does not find to his taste. It is a performance such as would be impossible outside the British Isles, in which all things grammatical are possible; and the American grammarians, whom Mr. Miles does not spare, will not be much more disturbed by his censure than Brugmann and Delbrück, who are also taken to task in a most schoolmasterly way.

Fragments of Earth Lore. By Prof. James Geikie, D.C.L., LL.D., F.R.S., etc. Edinburgh: Bartholemew. 1893. Large 8vo, 428 pages, 6 colored maps.

THE brothers Archibald and James Geikie both possess to a remarkable degree the combination of professional ability of a high grade with an attractive style of popular writing that fits their essays for preservation in handsome volumes on library shelves. Their official positions, the first as Director of the Geological Survey of Great Britain and Ireland, the second as Professor of Geology and Mineralogy in the University of Edinburgh, have not prevented their making contributions to magazine literature as well as to the proceedings of scientific societies, to which professors of the sciences too commonly restrict themselves. Both science and general intelligence are promoted by meetings of the specialist and the general reader on common ground, under the leadership of such men.

Fourteen essays by the younger brother, James Geikie, are now gathered under the title, 'Fragments of Earth Lore,' which we commend highly to those who are too busy to read widely enough to follow all the better popular scientific articles that appear nowadays, but who nevertheless do not like to abandon entirely a field of reading and information from which in their college career they received suggestive information and entertainment. We find a particular interest in the essays entitled "The Physical Features of Scotland," "The Cheviot Hills," and "The Glacial Succession in Europe." The first of these, neatly illustrated by a relief map, gives an admirable account of a most attractive country, and impresses the lesson which so many teachers of geography are slow to learn, namely, that a rational understanding of the physical geography of a country can be had only through an understanding of its geology; and that an essential preparation for any one who would properly teach any stage of geography but the most elementary, is a training in geology. It emphasizes a further fact that our States might take note of—namely, that no good geographical teaching can be expected in their schools until their teachers are supplied with reasonably good local maps.

The second essay, on the Cheviot Hills, is an excellent illustration of the common sense of geology; a leisurely presentation of a series of facts that all together make up a truly complicated history, although every one of them taken alone is simple enough for elementary teaching. The border land of England and Scotland, a district of no great scenic reputation, but attractive from its picturesque succession of hill and dale, and full of historical associations, is here described in so entertaining a manner that the traveller should be tempted to stop in the Cheviots, if only for the satisfaction of reading on the ground an essay that gives much pleasure even when read far away. We need many an essay of this kind in our own country.

The third of the three essays above mentioned is one of the best illustrations of ingenious geological argument that have recently come under our observation. The discovery of new facts may call for changes in its conclusions, but it is not to be expected that they will overthrow its essential thesis, that the glacial period was a complicated succession of events, to which no justice can be done by regarding it as a single geological epoch. There were advances of the ice sheet during [illegible] retreats of considerable duration when a mild

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climate prevailed, and readvances of the ice under a colder climate again. Indeed, Prof. Geikie is persuaded that five epochs of advance can be discriminated. This is truly a remarkable development of the primitive glacial theory, which classed all the northern drift as the product of a single glacial invasion. It testifies strongly to the opinion of our leader in this line of study, Prof. Chamberlin of Chicago, to the effect that the investigator should now enter the field without preconceptions as to the unity or complexity of the glacial period, and that his conclusions should be based only on critical interpretation of facts gathered from a broad region. As Prof. Geikie is a specialist in glacial geology, it is natural to find that subject receiving the most attention in his writings, and we do not doubt that this will be gratifying to the general reader, for there are few theories in geology which attract more widespread interest than this almost incredible belief as to the effects of former climatic changes. A large number of the civilized people of the world now live on lands which were not long ago swathed in ice, even as Greenland is to-day; and when so good a story as that is well told, it is well worth the reading.

The illustration of the volume by maps from the geographical establishment of Bartholemew adds greatly to its value and beauty. Bartholemew's work is coming to be widely known to geographers through his illustrations in the *Scottish Geographical Magazine*, from which some of the plates are here reprinted. It is a good thing for geographical science in a country to have a publishing-house so successfully devoted to illustration of the subject.

Women Adventurers. Edited by Ménie Muriel Dowie. London: T. Fisher Unwin; New York: Macmillan & Co. Crown 8vo, pp. 288.

We have in the volume before us (number fifteen of the "Adventure Series") the biographies of four female soldiers of fortune, edited, or, more properly, reëdited, by a writer who has won much praise by the narrative of her own adventures as 'A Girl in the Karpathians.' As an editor, Miss Dowie (Mrs. Norman) has chosen to wear her responsibilities somewhat lightly. That she is not deeply impressed by the veracity of the three histories she has resuscitated bodily (with the title-page of each apparently in facsimile) from their first incorporation in type, in the middle of the last and early part of the present century, she very frankly confesses in the preface with which she precedes them. She would "as soon," to quote her own words, "disturb the immemorial crust upon some pale and spiritualized '34 as disperse the gathered must and bloom on these old histories." To this point of view an exception is made in favor of the heroine whose adventures lead the list, and who, it is stated, "stands upon a different, a more serious platform, for she is of our own day, and plenty of men now living must have known her as Lieutenant Harry Buford."

The exploits of the lady thus vouched for, Mme. Loreta Janeta Velazquez in private life, were given to the world by a Hartford publisher in 1876. The first engagement she took part in, as an officer of Independent Scouts, C. S. A., was the battle of Bull Run, where, if we are to accept her own authority, "no man on the field that day fought with more energy or determination than the woman who figured as Lieut. Harry T. Buford." Failing, in spite of her valor, to get herself attached to a regular command, and "annoyed beyond expression" at the "slow and inconclusive progress of the military movements," this unrecognized military genius transformed herself into a spy, and continued thenceforward to alternate between the rôles of spy and soldier with a versatility worthy of her sex. In her matrimonial feats she is approached by only one of her compeers in the volume, whose partners in matrimony number three to her four. In inclination for independent warfare she is equalled by none, though all were able to undergo hard service in the Low Countries, in the East Indies, and, under Lord Howe, on board the war-ship *Brunswick*. All, like herself, escaped the tragic fate of battle and ended their days by natural causes in scenes of peace.

All were also able, for long periods and under circumstances the most unfavorable, to preserve intact the secret of their disguise as men. This, indeed, is the point of resemblance by which these lives have been brought into the intimacy of a common title and cover. That women may, if they choose, without too great difficulty, deceive the world as to their sex, may fairly be taken as the moral of the volume, if moral there be. A fourfold enforcement of this sentiment seems, however, of small practical value at a time when, again to quote Miss Dowie, there is no longer any need for women to put on the garb of men "in order to live, to work, to achieve, to breathe the outer air." Neither in physical endurance, in contempt of danger, nor in sustained courage do any of her adventurers surpass others of their sex who will readily occur to the memory. In refinement of nature and nobility of purpose they all fall far short of an ideal standard. Retold in Miss Dowie's own rather adventurous English, their histories might perhaps have gained a literary charm that would have made them live to be more than a nine days' wonder. As it is, the dulness and heaviness of the style in which they are for the most part written will be likely soon to drag them back into the oblivion from which they have been temporarily rescued.

The New Era; or, The Coming Kingdom. By the Rev. Josiah Strong, D.D. The Baker & Taylor Company.

The author has not abated one whit of that religious chauvinism which, in his former book, 'Our Country,' made Matthew Arnold stare and gasp. He has only come now to give the scientific reasons for the faith that is in him, and these we have in a little series of "fundamental laws and principles" which have governed the development of the world up to the present, and from which it follows with the most irrefragable logic that the Anglo-Saxon race is the flower of all creation, and the United States its destined garden—or, as Dr. Strong puts it in startling italics, "Now for the first time in the record of history the greatest race occupies the greatest home."

In one chapter of twenty-four pages we are given the great "principles" operative in the history of civilization, which "seem to afford the true key to history, though I find no recognition of them in Hegel, Guizot, Buckle, Draper, or any other writer on the philosophy of history." What these principles or "characteristics" are, the reader can find out, by an easy short-cut, through learning that "the miracle" is that they "are all united in one and the same race"—that lucky Anglo-Saxon, of course, in its American variety. Dr. Strong lays it down, in the usual italics, that "the civilization of all peoples is inversely as their isolation," and that it is one of the signs of being on the verge of the millennium, or whatever the new era is, that steam and electricity "render isolation and, therefore, barbarism, impossible." But a little further on he tells us that "the cranial capacity of the Australian is forty cubic inches less than that of the European. It would be impossible to raise the intellectual life of the former to that of the latter until his brain had been equally developed." This looks as if something besides "isolation" were the trouble; or would the Australian's brain at once double in size if he were dragged out of the bush and clapped down in Union Square? We think the author is bound to maintain that it would, not only as a deduction from his great principle that to get rid of isolation is to get rid of barbarism, but also from his enumeration of "the telegraph, the press, and the ballot-box" as "all the means which the intellectual life of a perfect social organization would require for its exercise and expression." The small-skulled Australian could have all these, with the telephone, the electric motor, the Ferris wheel, and all the other instruments for the perfecting of character by which, we are assured, it is the intention of Providence to "Anglo-Saxonize mankind."

Dr. Strong seems to fear that his readers will be inclined to stand still and see his great principles work out the salvation of the world unaided, and so, in the last half of his book, drops his principles for the most part and takes up practical difficulties. Here we begin to see that the greatest race has the toughest job on its hands. We are told of the extent of "popular discontent," of the "steady deterioration of our rural population"; we learn that "the church and the home are weaker in the city than anywhere else," that "those who are not Christians are on the increase in the world." This is pretty discouraging, but Dr. Strong always comes to the rescue just when things look blackest. Under the "Problem of the City," for example, he says, there are three alternatives possible: present tendencies may go on and the churches fall still further behind; the cities may find their growth arrested; or the churches will awake. The first alternative is ruled out because to accept it would be "to despair of our country." The second is impossible because of the "great world-movement towards the cities." Therefore, the third "shall be. *The churches will awake.*"

We have thought it worth while to give up space to this book, not only because it is doubtless destined to considerable vogue, but because it is the very flower of a kind of taking writing and speaking on great subjects, by good and able men, which is accepted by multitudes in lieu of sounder thought, and particularly as an excuse for doing no thinking themselves. These neat generalizations, even supposing them not to be preposterous, as they often are, are but so much feeding upon the east wind. Of his "principles" Dr. Strong says he is "absolutely sure"; that they must be applied if civilization is to be saved, he "cannot doubt"; but of "specific methods of applying them" he must "speak with diffidence." This puts us on track of the essential vice of such appeals to the emotions in great swelling words of vanity, followed up by such a pitiful modicum of practical example and direction.

Letters from Queensland. By the *Times* Special Correspondent. Macmillan & Co. 1893. Pp. 110, 8vo.

The main object of these letters is to show what inducements Queensland has to offer for

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English capital and labor, and at the same time to indicate the progress which less than half a million white men are making in developing a country three times as large as France. In order to do this intelligently, the writer travelled through the sugar district stretching along a thousand miles of coast, visited the great mining centres of Mt. Morgan in the east and Charters Towers in the north, and rode over some of the largest sheep-ranges of the interior. Each of these industries he describes with more or less detail, but gives most attention to the first, as upon its success apparently depends the development of tropical Australia. He shows, by facts taken from the experience of planters, and by carefully prepared tables of figures of the outlay necessary for breaking in new land, that "modest fortunes" are to be made in the cultivation of sugar by the small farmers and peasant proprietors. This is dependent, however, upon the employment of Kanakas, for on this vexed question of colonial politics the *Times* correspondent takes decided ground. As the result of his investigations he holds that native labor is absolutely essential to the profitable raising of sugar, and also that the labor traffic is now so safeguarded by legal restrictions and official oversight that the old abuses are no longer possible. After inspecting the quarters and rations of the islanders on plantations in every part of the sugar district, he says: "I have never in any country seen the lot of the average manual laborer so well cared for." Their contentment is proved by the fact that "two-thirds of the Kanakas now in Queensland are time-expired"—that is, men who have voluntarily renewed their contracts rather than return home.

There is an interesting account of Mt. Morgan, a hill rising 700 feet above the plain, "of which the core is seamed and traversed and permeated with gold." This is being gradually taken out, and the timbered chambers in the heart of the mountain "resemble rather the halls of a spacious castle than the burrows of a quartz vein." More important, however, than this mountain of gold is the gold field of Charters Towers, with 113 mines, having an output of 20,000 ounces a month, about which has sprung up a substantial town of 20,000 inhabitants. The letters descriptive of pastoral Queensland are perhaps the most entertaining and suggestive of all. A graphic picture is drawn of the shearing-shed at the height of its activity, as well as of the strange life of the shearers and their associates, known as the "rouseabouts." Though living like brutes, many of them are "decent, intelligent, and thoroughly respectable men," who were "ready to discuss theories of social and political economy. They are readers of George and Hyndman; Bellamy's 'Looking Backwards' is to be found in every shed." Very striking, also, is the account of the labor meeting in the bush. The closing letter states clearly and impartially the arguments for the division of Queensland and the serious difficulties in the way of accomplishing it.

The Chronicles of the Sid; or The Life and Travels of Adelia Gates. By Adela E. Orpen. London: Religious Tract Society. 1893. 8vo, pp. 413.

We have here a very entertaining account of a remarkable woman. The Sid (Arabic for mistress) is an American lady who has been a Lowell factory-girl, a schoolmistress, a student at Antioch College, in later life a flower-painter by profession, and, after having attained the age of threescore, a traveller. To many readers the first chapters, giving graphic pictures of life on a Kansas prairie during the civil war, will prove the most attractive. We single out an episode of the battle of Mound City:

"I stopped at a friend's house some four miles nearer the front than we were. She was standing outside her door, with her little children gathered around her, and their faces were anxiously turned towards the direction of Mound City—the gathering point of the militia.

"'Is there any news?' I asked.

"'Hush! we are listening,' said she.

"'Listening for what?' I asked.

"'Dare's 'nudder one,' said the youngest child, a little tot who was just beginning to talk. 'Tannons.'

"Sure enough, I heard now a sound that my horse's hoofs had prevented me from hearing sooner, a faint soft boom that floated across the still autumn air. Gently vibrating upon our ears, these soft faint booms followed each other at intervals of about thirty seconds, and were triumphantly listened to by the little babbling baby, who smilingly told me they were 'Tannons.'

"'We've been listening for some time,' said the mother gently—her husband was at the front, poor soul—'to hear if they get louder.'

"'And if they do?' I inquired.

"'Then we are going to your house, to go with you to the plains until the danger is past—those were father's directions.'

"'Dare's 'nudder tannon,' cried the little child gleefully.

"'Hush, baby, hush,' said the mother, kissing her tenderly. 'Don't say that.'"

From the West the scene abruptly changes to the Old World, and the remainder of the book is taken up with sketches of travel in the Sahara, on the Nile, in Palestine, Norway, and Iceland. These not only show unusual descriptive powers, but bring out very clearly the peculiar characteristics of Miss Gates as a traveller—namely, in addition to the ability to endure the utmost hardships, a perfect fearlessness and the faculty of attracting people of every class. In Southern Algeria it was an absolutely unheard-of thing to see a white woman travelling alone and like an Arab, and the sight called out all the hospitality and chivalry of the dwellers of the oases which she visited in quest of flowers to paint. Next in interest to these descriptions of life in the desert is the account of the journey up the Nile to the Wady Halfa, two hundred miles beyond the limit of the ordinary tourist. As this was made from Cairo on the deck of a native boat, it cost her "under four pounds ten shillings." The chapter narrating the Sid's wanderings in the Holy Land is written by Miss Gates herself, and contains many graphic descriptions, particularly of the people and their manner of life; but her style lacks the grace and charm of her biographer. The book closes with a brief account of journeys to Norway and Iceland.

The Microscope: Its Construction and Management, including Technique, Photo-micrography, and the Past and Future of the Microscope. By Dr. Henri Van Heurck, Professor of Botany and Director at the Antwerp Botanical Gardens, etc., etc. English edition, augmented by the author from the fourth French edition. Translated by Wynne E. Baxter, F.R.M.S., F.G.S. London: Crosby Lockwood & Son; New York: D. Van Nostrand Co. Royal 8vo, pp. xvi, 382.

The English edition of Dr. Van Heurck's important work is the last word on the microscope and its technique from the practical point of view of the investigator. The author's researches in the field of the Diatoms, in which he is a principal authority, led him into careful experiments with objectives of the widest aperture, whether used for direct observation or in photography. By the union of his great practical expertness with the theoretic ability of Prof. Abbe in the physical formulæ of lenses, and with the mingled scientific and mechanical resources of the great atelier of the Carl Zeiss Company at Jena, a coöperation was established which has given the world the standard of what may be accomplished to-day in the resolution and definition of minute structure and its exhibition by the photo-micrograph.

Prof. Van Heurck speaks, therefore, in the description of the microscope, the accessory apparatus, and its technique with a personal authority which will be recognized everywhere as of the highest. His chapter on photography with the microscope is the fullest and most satisfactory which has appeared in any general treatise on the instrument. The origin and development of the microscope are treated in an historical chapter well illustrated with drawings of the earlier instruments, from Hooke's and Cherubin's in the seventeenth century, downward. The whole is supplemented by a noteworthy communication from Dr. Czapski of the Zeiss Company on the future of the microscope, indicating the directions and the extent of the further improvements which the present state of science renders probable. The large size of the page chosen in the book has enabled the author to give the figures of various styles of instruments on so ample a scale as to make the comparison of their mechanical construction most easy and satisfactory. The list of English, French, and German microscopes thus illustrated is very full, and two or three of the leading American makes are included. The microtomes, in which development has been singularly rapid of late years, are also very fully described, and are illustrated on the same ample scale as the optical instruments.

Dr. Van Huerck has confined himself to the practical treatment of the microscope and its accessory apparatus, and has not attempted to give an encyclopædic view of its "revelations" in the various fields of scientific research. Within the scope he has thus set for himself, the work leaves little to desire and must be accepted as an authoritative standard.

Le Docteur Pascal. Par Émile Zola. Paris: Charpentier; New York: Westermann & Co.—*Doctor Pascal.* Translated by Mary J. Serrano. New York: Cassell.

Zola's latest novel is also the summary and crown of his whole work, he tells us in the dedication to his mother and his wife. But it is not a crown of glory in any sense of the word. The book is disappointing; it is not the equal of 'La Débâcle,' of 'Germinal,' of 'L'Assommoir.' It displays abundantly enough the faults and vices of the writer, with but few of his better qualities and none of his great powers. It is a labored justification of his wholly false views of life, of his pet theory of heredity, which he lays down as a law. It is useful as containing in some twenty pages a rapid review of the characters and incidents in the whole of the author's work, and, scattered here and there, statements of his views on life, on realism, on truth, on morals (save the mark!). These views are already well known, and the minds of most thinking men are already pretty well made up on the value of Zola's opinions. His challenge to hostile critics, his semi-disguised appeal to posterity to place him in the ranks of finders of truth, and not merely of seekers after it, will scarcely

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have much effect. An utterly false view of life, of society, of individual men and women, can never be the pedestal of an enduring fame. Foulness of the blackest, filth of the vilest, poured out in abundance, can never give a man a place among the great literary artists of France any more than maxims such as "One may be a murderer and yet serve God," make of him a moralist or a thinker of influence. One breathes a sigh of relief at the thought that 'Le Docteur Pascal' is the last of that series of repellent books in which passages of marvellous beauty and strokes of undoubted genius serve but to deepen disgust and to intensify regret.

As a story 'Le Docteur Pascal' is neither attractive nor very interesting. Not merely the approval of adultery, but its sensuous glorification, is in large measure the theme, and the trail of the serpent is over it all. The idea of a high-minded scholar earnestly striving after truth in the face of hostility, indifference, incredulity, unhappiness, cheered, however, by the enthusiasm and self-sacrifice of a pure, devoted girl, is prostituted to the illustration of the illicit amours of a sexagenarian and a girl whose mind, by study of so-called science, has been subtly corrupted. Pascal and Clotilde, the uncle and the niece, suffer eventually, but fail to awaken a spark of pity or sympathy in the reader's mind, for the author has made them despicable. The hideous and the gruesome have not been spared either—for this is a trait of the school: the maniac ancestress, Adelaide Fouqué; the idiot, Charles; the worn-out Maxime; the drink-soaked brute, Macquart; the harpy, Félicité, Pascal's mother, are paraded in all their deformity and repulsiveness. Death scenes, intended to be forceful but turning out simply ghastly, fail to convey any wholesome lesson or to produce any feeling save that of disgust. The book is laid down with thankfulness that the end has been reached at last.

The translation of the book published by Cassell is good and avoids dexterously some of the more offensive expressions of Zola. It cannot make his language quite unsuggestive, but it dulls the suggestiveness where it is worst and yet renders faithfully the spirit of the original.

Outlines of Roman History. By H. F. Pelham, Camden Professor of Ancient History in the University of Oxford. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1893.

THIS book is a "reprint, with many additions and corrections," of Mr. Pelham's article on Roman History in the 'Encyclopædia Britannica.' Although it professes to be no more than an outline sketch of the lines of development from the founding of the city until the accession of Odoacer, yet it is much fuller than such sketches are apt to be, the plan is well conceived and carried out, and the author shows throughout a rare power of grasping the most important points and exhibiting them clearly and in simple language. It is undoubtedly the work of a man well acquainted with the best ancient and modern authorities, of one who certainly acknowledges his indebtedness constantly, and yet does not hesitate to differ frankly, when he feels that he must, even from such chiefs as Mommsen.

The most striking and useful parts of the work are perhaps the clear expositions, at all the different periods, of the Roman system of home and provincial government in all its forms. Society, too, and its manifold divisions, receive most satisfactory treatment, except that too little is said about the *collegia*. The reader's attention is directed in the main to movements and not to men, but the greatest "figures of the past" are treated in a remarkably sage and satisfactory manner, considering how short is the book compared to the period which it covers. It is not a cram book out of which a boy may "get up" his Rome for an examination; it is too broad in its scope to serve so debased a purpose. But to the thoughtful and intelligent reader it will be an excellent guide, and will tempt him on to deeper and more special study. Ample references to the authorities are given throughout. A slight slip on page 166, *dies fasti* (for *festi ?*) deserves correction. It seems strange, too, that Mr. Pelham should cling to the view that *Roma Quadrata* was a term applied to the most ancient form of the city instead of to an altar. By the way, in the note on this passage (page 15), for *Testum* read *Festum*.

If we had a quarrel with Mr. Pelham, it would be because, in brushing aside the early legends, he does not pay them the compliment of telling what they are. Even a ten-pin must be set up before it is knocked down. A generation is growing up that knows not the kings, and to whom Horatius Cocles, Lake Regillus, and Virginia are mere inventions of Macaulay. Then, too, a history of Rome without a word about the Wolf!—an incredible thing to the two worthies of whom, as they stood gaping before the lightning-scarred bronze from the Capitol, one was overheard to murmur, "Think of what we owe to Romulus!" "Ah," sighed the other, wagging his head, "but just think what we owe to the Wolf."

Text-book of Comparative Geology. By E. Kayser, Ph.D., Professor of Geology in the University of Marburg. Translated and edited by Philip Lake. Macmillan & Co. 1893.

MR. KAYSER'S book, first published in 1891, is a text-book of historical geology for the German empire, with numerous remarks on the equivalent formations in other countries. Mr. Lake, in translating this excellent work, has made large additions to the extra-German descriptions, and thus added to its general value. The additions, however, have not been uniform, most of them being found in the first half of the volume. Limits of space are assigned as the reason for the lack of additions in the latter part of the book; but as the total number of pages is only a little in excess of 400, the validity of this reason is not very apparent.

The fact is that no work would be more welcome to geologists than an historical geology in which the formation of all countries where considerable investigations have been made should be luminously sketched. No one man could achieve such a task; but if geologists of other lands would imitate Mr. Kayser, we should soon have a dozen volumes with dovetailed contents, from which an Edward Suess could produce an almost ideal bird's-eye view of the subject. In the meantime this instalment will be warmly welcomed.

The matter is very well handled, and the very numerous illustrations of fossils, though not fine as works of art, are clear and sufficient. The literary references are decidedly unsatisfactory, as is apt to be the case with books growing out of courses of lectures. The value of the work would be doubled were it practicable to turn at once from its pages to the memoirs on which it is founded; but this omission can readily be made good in a second edition. There is a curious mistake on p. 351, where it is stated that marsupials are at present confined to Australia and *South* America, implying that there are no opossums in North America. This mistake does not appear in the German original. Lake Lahontan (misspelled Lahonta) and Lake Bonneville are confounded, and there are other errors, but not such as to detract seriously from the usefulness of the book.

Sound Sense in Suburban Architecture: containing hints, suggestions, and bits of practical information for the building of inexpensive country houses. By Frank T. Lent, Architect. With illustrations by the author. Cranford, N. J.: Frank T. Lent. 1893.

THE suburban house might be called the American specialty, for the American's country-house is usually only a suburban house standing apart, and, except in the large cities, his town houses are mostly the same houses crowded together. A rather surprising amount of good designs in their kind is distributed through the swarm of books made up of designs for houses which are issued to tempt whoever will build. The houses in Mr. Lent's slender book are better than the average in such books; his hints and suggestions are sound, as his title-page claims, though it did not need an architect to write them. The model specification which fills the latter half of the volume is careful, and, except for the balloon framing, which is out of keeping with the rest, is reasonable; but, if we may judge by the prices given in one or two instances, there can hardly be a close correspondence between it and the houses.

A Winter in North China. By the Rev. T. M. Morris. Fleming H. Revell Company.

THE Christian missionary work is so well established in China that it is the custom of the great missionary societies to send out, from time to time, delegations from home, for the encouragement of the missionaries, or for inspection of their work. The Baptist Missionary Society of England has sent out two of its ablest and most experienced men, Rev. T. M. Morris of Ipswich, and Rev. Richard Glover, D.D., of Bristol—the latter furnishing an introduction to the volume under review—for the purpose of examination and criticism. The missionaries in the field complain that their work has been frequently criticised by those who have never seen it, or who have known little or nothing of the circumstances in which, and the conditions under which, that work is being carried on. On the other hand, their work has never been described but by themselves, and they reasonably acknowledge that there are many who think that the maker of converts is not the best person to describe either the quantity or quality of conversion. They therefore prayed for two men, in whom there was mutual confidence, to come and spy out the land.

These two gentlemen of years and experience, practical Englishmen, went out to China, taking in Japan by the way. They noticed how the Gospel could lay hold on a mobile, artistic, but withal sensual people, and commend itself to thousands as the best guide for nations and for men. In China, all sorts of questions, of keenest interest, met them at every turn. As sociologists, students of history and of comparative religion, and as Christians anxious to convert their fellowmen reared in a faith of different form and spirit, they found a field replete with interest. Hence this account of their travels and expe-

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riences, though of less value to the critical student who would study the great moulding forces beneath the surface, is of great popular interest, because everything appeared to the travellers so fresh and full of novelty. Every nerve seemed to be sensitive to the new impressions, and the author writes with all the joy and sparkle of one who sees an old thing for the first time. After the usual initial chapter concerning San Francisco, the Pacific, and Yokohama, we have a glimpse of Fusan and Jinsen and Korea, a glance at Chefoo and Tien-Tsin. A journey of five months in the interior, travelling by cart, wheelbarrow, and other strange conveyances, was made over eighteen hundred miles or more, the average rate of speed and travel being about three miles an hour. Most of the time was spent in the three great provinces, Chih-li, Shantung, and Shansi, though passing visits were paid to six other provinces, and most of the treaty ports were visited.

The special impression one gets from this book is of the vastness of the inland traffic of China despite the vileness of the roads. The wind-sped wheelbarrow, equipped with sail, is a notable means of transportation. The chapter on the Great Plain of China is of much interest, because it discusses in an interesting manner the life of the millions of cave-dwellers in the precipitous loess cliffs. Whole villages are made up of these troglodytes, who live in the excavations which rise terrace above terrace in this remarkable geological formation, which is believed to be of sub-aerial origin. Mr. Morris discusses the opium question from a point of view dear to the heart of the British taxpayer, who does not like to be troubled with principle: "As a set-off to opium-smoking there is no visible drunkenness in the interior of China; in the parts at least I have visited, I have not seen a drunken man. I have scarcely seen a Chinaman taking anything stronger than the weakest of weak tea or hot water." The writer is not insensitive to the beauties of art or the interest of folk-lore, and tells with gusto the pretty legends of fair virgins who cast themselves into the crucibles of molten metal in order to secure the successful casting of the great bells. One of these summoners to prayer always utters, in accents as of a female voice, "Hsie, hsie" (Shoe, shoe), because the spectator who rushed forward to seize and save the maiden was in time only to catch one of her shoes, which came off in his hand, and Ko-ai still calls for her lost shoe. The invariable interview with Li-Hung-Chang was sought for and obtained, and, as usual, the great Chinaman praised the medical missionaries, while still clinging to Confucianism, which he thinks is best for the Chinese. There is a very fair chapter about the religions of China, and the statement and discussion of missionary work and methods are unhackneyed, suggestive, and stimulating. Take it all together, this is a work worthy of wide reading.

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